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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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DEVELOPMENT OF INDEPENDENCE AS AN EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVE

SCHOOLING should tend to make the pupil increasingly independent. The teacher should be constantly alert for evidence that the pupil is acquiring self-sufficiency. In this circumstance, the effective school and teacher tend to eliminate themselves from the life of the pupil. We think of this process as the maturation of the pupil, and

there seems to be unanimity that assisting this development is a worthy educational objective. What is true of the attitude of the teacher toward the pupil should have its counterpart in the attitude of supervisory functionaries toward teachers and other staff personnel.

In practice, however, educators do not always keep this objective clearly above the temptation to impose upon

WHAT DO YOU WANT?

IF YOU have not already sent to the Editorial Committee your answers to the questions that were asked in the September number of the *School Review*, would you please take a moment and do so right away. The Committee would like to have your ideas about the lists of "Selected References" which appear each month.

1. Do you prefer that the lists of "Selected References" be retained?
2. Do you prefer that the lists of "Selected References" be dropped and the space be given to articles?

Address your letter to Department of Education Publications, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois. Please indicate the type of position that you hold, such as teacher, superintendent, college or university professor, etc.

pupils and teachers the will of superiors even though such action tends to retard progress toward genuine individual development. At least, attention should be directed toward activities in the profession which provide conditions conducive to self-development upon the part of pupils or staff. Several items giving evidence of such conditions have appeared recently in educational literature and, although of wide scope, are nonetheless to the point and should prove of interest to educators.

Grass-roots leadership There is no special news value in an announcement of the inception of another educational organization. Such organizations are legion. There is news, however, in the announcement of an organization so constituted that it really provides for leadership from the everyday practitioners. This newly formed organization is known as the American School Counselor Association, in which, it should be especially noted, "counselor trainers or state supervisors cannot hold voting memberships."

This organization can contribute much to the professional growth and maturation of guidance workers in our schools provided they intelligently pool their observations and experiences from their daily contacts with pupils. Many of the theories which come from top leadership must eventually prove their soundness in practice. Though not all knowledge stems from direct experience, the practition-

ers can make large contributions to a professional field if they are relied upon for generalizations from their experiences. Too frequently in the past, counselors have been willing to follow blindly the dictates of an authority or to use systems of counseling imposed upon them by superiors or by "new theories."

At present the counselors are almost forced to rely on their own observations because leaders present many divergent points of view and theories about counseling—on what training counselors should possess and what kind of specialist (whether educator, psychologist, psychiatrist, or social-service administrator) should head the whole program of guidance and personnel services.

Counselors in schools are invited to become associated with this organization designed for the kind of grass-roots leadership so frequently desired by individual professional workers and so essential to the advancement of their own growth and that of their colleagues. Application may be made to Professor E. C. Roeber, 113 Hill Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri, who is chairman of the National Membership Committee of the American School Counselor Association.

Students' self-assignments An excellent criterion of maturity is what a student does when he is free to do anything he wishes.

At Central High School in Trenton, New Jersey, there are no scheduled

recitations on Wednesday, in order to give students an opportunity to be "on their own." The report of this plan, written by Charles A. Hogan, a teacher in the school, appears in the May, 1952, issue of the *Clearing House*. States Mr. Hogan:

Wednesday, known as the Study Day, is not as unorthodox as it may first appear. There is serious, reflective study, pursued with an interest to delight the heart of the academic schoolmaster. For instance, the pupil who has a weakness or a special interest in a subject like geometry or Latin may settle down, if he chooses, to a full day of supervised study and discussion of the subject.

The Study Day is the result of fifteen years of experimentation. It is a novel undertaking by which one large secondary school endeavored to develop a program to meet some of the needs of youth under public school conditions. The idea of the program and its organization were originally borrowed from schools organized on the Dalton Plan. Miss Helen Parkhurst, the originator of the plan, said at the time of the Dalton Plan experiment: "We want teachers with original ways sufficient to answer the needs of each individual. Let us free them from the yoke of method and system and make it possible for them to use their own good judgment."

The purposes of the Study Day, as listed by Hogan, are:

1. To provide a simple and economical reorganization of the school machinery which will permit a heretofore traditional school to function as a truly living community, without immediately necessitating a radical change in the curriculum.
2. To give all students an opportunity to learn by the scientific method of investigating and discovering for themselves.
3. To reduce subject antipathies which are usually identified with subject weak-

nesses by readjusting the time schedule to permit the individual to devote more time to a particular obstacle.

4. To enable college-preparatory students to have experience vital for success in college—namely, planning their work schedule—and to bring to these students the benefits of the larger objectives of general education.

5. To provide a suitable environment outside of the classroom for co-operative action and work and at the same time provide for student differences.

6. To stimulate widespread and intensive study of significant problems of personal and community living.

7. To make available to the classroom teacher and all others who deal with learning the use of new and additional types of instructional material and services.

8. To integrate all of the school experiences of each individual in such a manner as to promote the maximum growth of all.

Independence aided by physical education The title of a recently published pamphlet, *Democratic Leadership in Physical Education*, is intriguing because of the implied philosophy and suggested practices. It was prepared by Maud L. Knapp, director of physical education for women at Stanford University, and Frances Todd, assistant head counselor at Balboa High School in San Francisco, and was published by the National Press, 273 Broadway, Millbrae, California (\$1.25). How much independence can a pupil develop in an activity which commonly is thought of as discipline in following more or less arbitrary rules of games? Conscious of this problem, these authors report:

Democratic skills do not accrue just automatically from exposure to or participation in sports and physical-education activities. The totalitarian dictators used physical activities as the prime means for fostering their ideologies as well as building a high degree of physical fitness for military purposes. The method they used was authoritarian and dictatorial. They demanded, and got, co-operation, but it was co-operation *for* instead of co-operation *with*. The goal was the good of the group, and the individual was always subservient. Behavior that was passive or aggressive was demanded—there was no place for self-direction or self-discipline. The group loyalty was extremely high, though it was blind rather than reasoning. Physical-education activities, then, do not in themselves guarantee outcomes that are valuable in a democracy. The potentials are there, but it is the method and leadership that point to the results.

It is impossible to set up a blueprint of democratic method that will fit all leaders in all situations, just as it is impossible to outline a sure-fire method for teaching any complicated skill. But there is a pattern of democratic method that supplies a common thread which runs through all programs designed to improve human relations. It is the purpose of this pamphlet to outline this pattern and to give specific, practical, down-to-earth suggestions that a physical educator can use in daily classes. This is a "how to" presentation that attempts to translate nebulous principles, tenets, and objectives into action techniques that may assist the pre-service and in-service physical-education teacher to achieve classes which are laboratories for experiencing and perfecting democratic skills through the medium of physical activities. With modifications and adaptations these methods give promise of making a worth-while contribution to the improvement of human relations through our big-muscle activities.

The methods suggested have been used successfully in many schools, both large and

small. The outcomes of these methods have been tested empirically and sociometrically and have been found to measure up to their promise.

The focus is on the girls' physical-education program in junior and senior high schools. However, it is the belief of the authors that the pattern of democratic leadership is applicable to younger and older groups, and to boys' and men's classes, with adaptations appropriate to the age, maturity, experience, background, needs, and capabilities of the group.

Activities of our youth "Educational Developments in the United States, 1951-52," is a summary report of the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, to the Fifteenth International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva, Switzerland, July 7-16, 1952. This brief yet inclusive overview is referred to here for the specific purpose of directing attention to the paragraphs pertaining to youth movements, which show to a gratifying extent youth's self-directiveness:

More than 66 per cent of all public high schools schedule pupil activities as an integral part of the school day by means of the activity period; approximately 75 per cent of these schools have some form of student council through which the pupils participate in school government.

Some outstanding youth organizations are sponsored nationally by the Office of Education. More than 374,000 American farm boys who are studying vocational agriculture in the public secondary schools are members of the Future Farmers of America. These organizations provide participating experience in a wide variety of activities designed to stimulate interest in farming and to help develop the boys' talents in leadership, co-operation, and citizenship.

The Home Economics Branch of the Office of Education and the American Home Economics Association are co-sponsors of the Future Homemakers of America, a youth organization which enrolls 389,695 teen-age girls. The principal objectives are: to emphasize the importance of being helpful members of the family group; to provide wholesome recreation; to encourage democracy in home and community life; and to promote international good will.

Ethical maturity of adolescents It is sometimes said that pupils are capable of reaching maturity of judgment in areas of educational, vocational, and social life but that their growth to ethical maturity is so slow that adults must continue to exercise complete authority over them. If true, this situation may be accounted for in part by the relative scarcity of helpful guides available to teachers, parents, and others interested in aiding young people to grow up ethically. The entire issue of the *High School Journal* for May, 1952, is devoted to various aspects of helping adolescents become ethically mature. While the whole issue is worthy of consideration by educators, the writer wishes to call attention to the following paragraphs. They conclude an article on "Helping the Adolescent To Develop Skills in Arriving at Ethical Judgment" written by Clinton R. Prewett, of East Carolina College.

The actual manner of teaching skills in arriving at ethical judgments should not differ psychologically from that of teaching reading or anything else, for that matter. In an academic area a child frequently arrives

at the wrong generalization because of faulty perception of the various factors in the problem that are pertinent to an adequate solution. Likewise, in a problem involving ethical components, a child may not arrive at an adequate understanding because he has not seen the various patterns of action available to him. This suggests that low-level ethical actions are frequently the result of the inability of the child to perceive and to understand the various factors involved in the situation. The function of the teacher is the assistance to the child to clarify his own thinking, to help him to see elements in the problem that he has not considered. It is *not* necessarily in order that the teacher shall punish the child for wrongdoing. Admonishments, threats, and actual physical punishments should be employed only when they contribute to the growth that is desired on the part of the pupil. And this is not as frequent as many adults apparently seem to think.

Finally, growth by children in making ethical judgments should be recognized by someone important to the child. Justified praise and merited recognition are important in the development of more adequate patterns of behavior in all areas. It should not be forgotten by teachers who strive for more adequate citizenship among their pupils.

Community project for youth A project in which a whole community is attempting to guide the development of children and youth to satisfying maturity is being carried on in a Midwestern city under the direction of a Community Youth Development Commission composed of local leaders, with the help of consultant services provided by faculty members of the University of Chicago. The program is based on scientific findings of the past twenty years, which indicate that:

1. Early prognosis of personal and social maladjustment is possible—as early as the age period of six to ten.

2. Maladjustment is much more easily prevented if preventive work is started early.

3. Early prognosis of talent is possible—though this prognosis probably cannot be made as soon as the prognosis of maladjustment.

4. Potential talent can best be developed if it is brought to light and cultivated fairly early.

The community has set up a ten-year program which will attempt to answer the following questions:

What would happen if a community called to its aid the best methods of discovering very early the children with special problems and special abilities? What would happen if a community used its youth-serving facilities to help these children after they were discovered?

To answer these questions, a plan which will do the following things has been developed:

1. Discover early the children who can profit most from special help.

2. Develop a corps of local community residents to help these children, at no extra cost to the community.

3. Provide for expert consultation, direction, and evaluation of the project.

A monograph describing in detail the initiation and the organization of the program has recently been published as the first of a series of progress reports on the project. The brochure, entitled *A Community Youth Development Program*, was written by Robert J. Havighurst, Robert F. DeHaan, William J. Dieterich, Henry Hackmack, LaVona Johnson, and Robert D. King. It has been published as Sup-

plementary Educational Monograph No. 75 by the University of Chicago Press and sells for \$1.50 a copy.

Limitations of questionnaire data Use of the questionnaire is one common method for determining what is on the minds of our stu-

dents or of other persons with whom we are working. The questionnaire, in spite of its well-recognized limitations, continues as a prime source of data in educational investigations. Usually the possible bias of the conclusions as a result of incomplete returns is considered and commented on, but one can only guess how biased the findings may be. In the case of a recent study by John W. M. Rothney, professor of education at the University of Wisconsin, and Robert L. Mooren, assistant in education at the same institution, this question was not left at the level of conjecture. These investigators obtained a 100 per cent sample by pursuing the tardy members of the population through five successive steps. Their results are revealing and should be examined by other investigators who are planning to use the questionnaire technique.

The investigation, which was reported in *Occupations* for May, 1952, under the title "Sampling Problems in Follow-up Research," not only served to emphasize the likelihood of bias in the results of mail questionnaires but also revealed the nature and the amount of the deviations of the incomplete samples from the complete returns. These conclusions have spe-

cific reference to high-school follow-up studies. Many schools have conducted such studies in recent years, and others may be planning follow-ups in the near future. In either case, the results may involve some of the following types of bias found by Rothney and Mooren:

Graduates of high schools in industrial communities tend to respond faster to follow-up requests for information than graduates of schools located in agricultural areas.

Subjects who have received intensive individual attention respond faster than those who have not.

Subjects who have been interviewed frequently in a counseling program and those who have sought out further counseling respond more quickly than those who have not.

Girls respond faster than boys.

Subjects who rank highest in their graduating classes tend to respond faster than the lower ranking subjects.

Subjects who score high on intelligence tests respond faster than the lower scoring students.

Those subjects who are continuing education beyond high school respond more quickly than those who enter employment.

Of employed subjects, those who are in the higher level jobs respond faster than subjects who are unemployed or employed at unskilled jobs.

Those subjects who report satisfaction with their post-school activity respond more quickly than those who are dissatisfied.

Youth who had been uncertain about their vocational choice during the last month of senior high school did not reply as quickly as those who had indicated definite plans for post-school activity.

Youths from broken homes tend to be slower in response than others.

It is worthy of note that these findings suggest that the results of follow-

up studies are usually biased on the favorable side. In other words, the conclusions drawn from a 100 per cent sample would be, on the whole, less favorable to the secondary schools than the studies have indicated. Most follow-up investigations, even without obtaining responses from the less satisfied or the more poorly adjusted graduates, have revealed certain respects in which secondary-school programs can be improved. The basis for recommending improvements would probably be strengthened considerably by efforts to secure more representative returns.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, unlike general education, must change with the changing conditions which exist in the workaday world. The only justification for specialized vocational training is that it prepares individuals to meet the particular requirements for specific vocations available to them for employment upon completion of their training. Vast sums of public and private funds are paid each year for vocational training. News about this field is, therefore, of utmost concern to all educators.

Evaluating local programs

What leaders in vocational education think about the progress which has been made in the past thirty years of vocational industrial education, and how such progress can be evaluated by communities in order to make further progress in the

future, are very well presented in a 1952 publication of the American Technical Society, Chicago 37, Illinois. This report is entitled *A Procedure for Evaluating a Local Program of Trade and Industrial Education* and is sponsored by the Joint Committee on Evaluation Procedures in Trade and Industrial Education of the National Association of State Supervisors of Trade and Industrial Education, National Association of Local Administrators of Vocational Education and Practical Arts, and the National Association of Industrial Teacher Trainers, in co-operation with the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

School systems which are spending large sums for vocational training can evaluate their own effectiveness by referring to the suggestions and forms contained in this report. The report has the following to say with respect to the purposes of the evaluation:

The purposes of the evaluation are to determine: (1) whether the phases, conditions, or provisions of a local program of vocational trade and industrial education, as constituted, are in line with the needs of the community for extension and preparatory training of industrial workers, and (2) to what extent the program, or its parts, as operated, provides needed advisory and/or training services to industrial workers and management in an effective and efficient manner. From a review and evaluation of these two general features in terms of actual program operations, there should result a summary of outstanding and satisfactory training services, and also an understanding of phases, conditions, or provisions that are not in line with needs, or are not up

to standard, together with suggestions and recommendations that will point the way to improvements.

In order to assist in keeping the evaluation within the framework of the purposes and outcomes described in the preceding paragraph, it is well to keep in mind certain possible objectives that are not included in the intent of the evaluation procedures outlined herein. The following examples are illustrative of these:

a) The evaluation is not necessarily intended to measure the effectiveness of a program in terms of arithmetic values for the purpose of comparison with other programs, courses, or personnel.

b) The evaluation is not designed to be a direct instrument of state supervision in determining the degree to which legal requirements and standards or rules and regulations are being met. This is taken care of in the regular routine of state supervision.

c) The evaluation is not intended to be used as an instrument to inquire into the over-all or specific educational philosophies or beliefs of the Board of Education, or staff members of the school system. *The program operation and its outcomes in terms of service to the people and industries of the community are the things being measured.* If the measurements are properly done and reported on, there will be a positive effect on those responsible for the program's success.

d) The evaluation should not be used to interfere with recognized and constituted administrative lines of authority and procedures in the school system. Instead, it should point the way to obtain a better understanding and an even greater co-operative effort in attaining the objectives of the program, when such improvement is necessary.

Sooner or later, taxpayers justifiably call for an accounting of public expenditures. How soon this call will

be heard in any community regarding the costs of vocational training cannot be forecast. The wise school administrator will anticipate the call by considering the system of evaluation suggested by this report.

Is the U.S. program unique? Since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act by our Congress in 1917,

the expansion of public vocational education of under-college grade has expanded so greatly in this country that there is a temptation to think of modern vocational education as American-made. This writer is impressed by a recent study of *Vocational Education in the Netherlands* by William F. Holtrop (University of California Publications in Education, Vol. XI, No. 2, pp. 31-158). The initiation of Holland's program of vocational education followed by only two years (1919) our own vocational act, and its development in that country paralleled our own to a surprising degree, except for the occupation period during World War II. Holtrop's entire study makes interesting and illuminating reading. His observations of what has happened with vocational education in the Netherlands in the postwar period is especially interesting to those who wish an insight into vocational training in a foreign land:

In spite of innumerable barriers, the program of vocational education is gradually regaining its prewar standards. Shortage of supplies is still a serious handicap, and tools and equipment lost or confiscated during the war are difficult to replace. The Dutch prac-

tice of not overcrowding classes still prevails. Selection is made by entrance examinations, but even with this method of elimination the junior technical schools must accept some pupils with inadequate fundamental knowledge because of poor elementary instruction in the war years. It is estimated that many students missed as much as two years of training during this period. Although the primary vocational schools do review elementary-school subjects, they cannot teach the entire course.

Secondary technical schools also find it difficult to handle the many applicants for admission. Since graduates from these schools easily find positions in industry, enrolment is always high. Many students at the various nautical and engineering schools secure positions with the gradually expanding Dutch merchant fleet even before graduation.

The teaching force in most vocational schools is adequate. Morale is high because instructors realize that a successful vocational program is of greatest importance during reconstruction. Although with the increasing cost of living, the salary schedule does need revising, there is less dissatisfaction among vocational teachers than among those in general education.

Apprenticeship training continues to receive the support of the state government and private industry. Bemetal [the organizing body for the metal and electrotechnical industry] is especially active in this field, establishing programs wherever there is opportunity.

In conclusion one may say that the program of vocational education is making significant contribution to the economic and industrial recovery of the Netherlands. It is unfortunate that so many young people, after completing their vocational training, must serve a compulsory period with the armed forces, particularly at a time when their skill and training are in such great demand.

Adjusting to work after training One of the problems of vocational training at all levels, from the most menial to the professional, is that of helping the trainee make the initial adjustment to the job or position upon completion of his formal training. Some vocational schools have appointed co-ordinators to aid students in the transition from training courses through the beginning periods of employment. At the professional levels, however, little has been done because it is felt, no doubt, that such workers can make their own employment adjustments after they have been trained.

In education we have done little in an organized way to aid beginning teachers to translate their vocational training in such courses as educational psychology, classroom management, and theory of teaching to the necessities of dealing with the forty or fifty flesh-and-blood members of their first classes. For this reason, *The First Three Years of Teaching: Promoting the Growth and Measuring the Effectiveness of the Beginning Teacher* should prove to be a most welcome addition to our professional literature. This contribution was made by the State Education Department, Albany, New York, in May, 1952. The following paragraphs state the problem and purpose of this publication:

The beginning teacher often has not been given the assistance and co-operation he needs because schools have lacked sufficient supervisory personnel and the administrator's own time has been absorbed by

other problems which seemed more immediately pressing. The urgency of the routine business of school administration and of the added problems brought on by increased enrolments and building needs has often resulted in neglect of the beginning teacher.

Consequently, the teacher is forced to rely upon his own imagination and initiative in finding the solutions to problems, many of which he does not even recognize until it is too late. Some seek help from other teachers, and, if fortunate, get excellent guidance, but too many revert to practices they can remember having been used in their own school days, thus perpetuating practices which may or may not be good.

The progress of these teachers is a concern of several groups, but the challenge falls largely upon the administrator. Training institutions are accepting increasing responsibility for continuing the training of teachers beyond the pre-service period. The State Education Department has an interest in helping the local school to improve teaching. The local school administrator, however, is chiefly responsible for helping the teacher to understand his responsibilities and his needs and for initiating and organizing in-service assistance.

The problem faced by the administrator in obtaining a high quality of teaching service for his school is essentially one of (1) knowing what good teaching is, (2) selecting people with promise of becoming good teachers, (3) wisely assigning them their duties in the school, (4) orienting them to school and community life, (5) diagnosing and recognizing their strengths and weaknesses early, (6) providing for the correction of their weaknesses and for the development and utilization of their strengths in the classroom and in the whole school program, (7) evaluating their probationary performance, and (8) retaining as permanent staff members those who are satisfactory. He has the related problem and responsibility of recognizing those who are not suited for teaching

and helping them to enter another field where their talents will be more valuable.

This manual is based on experiences which administrators have had in developing methods and procedures for coping with those problems and on the findings of research studies related to them. Much of the material applies equally well to the substitute teacher and to the experienced teacher who is new to a system, and some of it, to the entire teaching staff.

Although the beginning teacher has been isolated in this manual, it is not intended that he be entirely set apart in practice. The goal is his integration as a full participant in the work of the entire teaching staff.

NEW GUIDANCE MATERIALS

GUIDANCE WORKERS who have been in the field for more than ten years cannot fail to be impressed by the ever increasing amount and quality of published materials available to administrators, counselors, and pupils regarding the problems in educational, vocational, personal, and social adjustment of pupils and the training of personnel to carry on guidance services in schools. This is not the place to attempt an appraisal of all new guidance materials. Attention is directed to only a few recent publications which have especial relevance to the current situation or have an appeal to this editor as being worthy of comment in limited space.

Materials on military services Many high-school and college students have one eye in the direction of schooling and the other in the direction of the armed forces. The counseling problem be-

comes somewhat involved because of this situation and because of the limited amount of information about opportunities in the armed forces that is at present available to counselors and students. The Department of Defense has made available, through the United States Government Printing Office, an inexpensive publication entitled *Students and the Armed Forces*, which supplies pointed data concerning (1) selective service procedures, (2) enlistment procedures, (3) personnel procedures in the armed forces, (4) occupational training opportunities, (5) educational opportunities as part of occupational training, (6) educational opportunities in voluntary, off-duty study programs, (7) opportunities for officer commissions, (8) academic credit for service experiences, (9) religious and moral-guidance programs, and (10) recreational and welfare programs. The purposes of this valuable pamphlet are stated as a concluding word:

Every effort has been made to keep this booklet factual. At the same time, no attempt has been made in it to cover all the Armed Forces programs in complete detail. That would not be desirable, for several reasons. The full stories, and up-to-date information, can be obtained from the recruiting stations of the respective Services, or from the publications listed in the bibliography in chapter xii.

This booklet is an abbreviated, but open, account of how your students and other young people can improve their academic and/or vocational backgrounds while serving in the expanded Armed Forces. It also points out the religious, moral, and recreational opportunities available to them.

As has also been mentioned several times, these opportunities for improvement and guidance are just that—opportunities. The rest is up to the young people after they get into the Services. If they do not take advantage of the opportunities offered, they will not gain by the experience.

On the other hand, those people who do apply themselves to their jobs and make intelligent use of their spare time will profit immeasurably. They will be better equipped academically, vocationally, physically, morally, and spiritually for the tasks at hand and for their future obligations when they return to civilian life.

Counseling during the defense period The Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, has produced two helpful monographs—

Counseling High-School Students during the Defense Period and *Counseling College Students during the Defense Period*—which may be ordered from the United States Government Printing Office. Though both these contributions are of interest and assistance to counselors, the manual on the counseling of high-school students is more to the point so far as readers of the *School Review* are concerned. The need for, and purpose of, this bulletin are stated as follows:

There is today a sense of urgency and imminence about the educational experiences of youth that this country has never before experienced. The demands upon our educational institutions to assist in producing adequate manpower, to help maintain national strength at a maximum of efficiency, and to assure the survival of democracy have never been equaled in our nation's history. General Dwight D. Eisenhower has said: "To neglect our school sys-

tem would be a crime against the future. Such neglect could well be more disastrous to all our freedoms than the most formidable armed assault on our physical defenses. . . . Where our schools are concerned, no external threat can excuse negligence; no menace can justify a halt to progress."

A "Stay-in-School Policy" has been urgently advocated by many Federal agencies such as the Department of Defense, Selective Service, as well as by other groups such as the Committee on the Relation of Secondary Education to National Security and the Citizens' Federal Committee on Education. What this "Stay-in-School Policy" implies for the guidance of high-school youth has not been too well understood or defined.

Certain developments make the time propitious. The signing of the new "Universal Military Training and Service Act" by President Truman in July, 1951, extending Selective Service to July 1, 1955, and the extended Armed Forces preparedness program which it entails; the President's statement of long-range manpower utilization policy, issued January 17, 1951; the clearly stated policy on deferment from training and service in the Armed Forces of many categories of persons whose employment is found to be necessary to the maintenance of the national health, safety, and interest make it possible to be more explicit now than before the emergence of all these policies and to suggest specific guidance activities and procedures.

This bulletin has been prepared to assist counselors, teachers, students, and parents in finding source material and in solving their current and future problems.

It indicates briefly the nature of these times, highlights concurrent problems, and suggests how youth can be assisted in solving these problems. Among its objectives are:

1. Helping youth get a bird's-eye view of the total induction picture.
2. Assisting youth in long-range planning.

3. Helping youth dispel doubt and indecision induced by the times.

4. Suggesting projects and programs which schools can initiate.

5. Indicating selected source material.

6. Suggesting ways for developing maximum teamwork among agencies concerned with youth problems under current circumstances.

This timely publication will prove most useful to counselors and their counselees who are in school or who have recently separated themselves from school.

Report on individual analysis Kansas State Teachers College has planned a series of six conferences on problems in individual analysis. The first conference on this general topic emphasized techniques other than tests and measurements. The second conference on the general topic emphasized tests and measurements. The latter conference was held on June 14-15, 1951, and the report of the proceedings was published in May, 1952, as Volume XLVIII, Number 7, of the Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas.

The pamphlet reports the speeches delivered at the time of conference. These deal with various aspects of the use of standardized tests in guidance-service programs, the help their results should give the school administrator, planning and administering a standardized testing program which serves both counselors and administrators, the evaluation and interpreta-

tion of test results for counseling purposes, how to discuss test results with students, and how to evaluate and interpret test results for administration purposes.

The speeches offer thoughtful and helpful suggestions and are weighted toward the practical aspects of the guidance program so far as the application of standardized tests to the program is concerned.

Personnel workers' preparation Early in these news items, it was implied that several kinds of trained personnel are needed in a comprehensive guidance program. What specific place each of these special functionaries has in the program and what particular training he should possess have not as yet been clearly defined, but the profession is certainly working on these questions. Much is being written on the subject, and numerous conferences have been held by counselor trainer groups in the past several years. In one month, April, 1952, at least two bulletins on the preparation of counselors were issued.

One, a comprehensive presentation of *The Preparation and Training of Pupil Personnel Workers*, is a report of the State of California Committee on Credentials for Pupil Personnel Services, and it is distributed by the California State Department of Education, at Sacramento. The other bulletin, *Supervised Practice in Counselor Preparation*, is one of a series of re-

ports on counselor preparation published by the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, from the proceedings of the Ninth National Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance Services and Counselor Trainers. Both are the results of the polled judgments of many professional workers.

The California report is one of the most comprehensive and adequate statements which have come to this writer's attention. It classifies four kinds of specialists—the child welfare and attendance worker, the school social worker, the school counselor, and the school psychologist and psychometrist—and analyzes their duties and responsibilities and what training each should possess.

The question which is often raised is whether these specialists have sufficient in common to warrant one type of certificate for all. The study which was made in California is reported as follows in their bulletin:

The state-wide pupil personnel credential committee has done much more than to propose a program of training and a plan for the certification of pupil personnel workers. Of greater significance for those who are alarmed by California's segmented certification program and who desire to see an integration of these various credential patterns and a subsequent reduction in the number of types now issued is the success attained by the committee in its use of activity analysis as a means of establishing a factual basis for their recommendations.

The proposed training and proposed certification requirement for pupil personnel workers, if adopted, will eliminate three

separate credentials now in existence—the School Psychologist Credential, the School Psychometrist Credential, and the Child Welfare and Supervision of Attendance Credential—and replace these with *one* credential that all workers who serve half-time or more in pupil personnel services will be required to hold. Such a credential would authorize the holder to perform all pupil personnel services with the exception of those specifically assigned by law or State Board of Education regulations to a school psychologist or psychometrist. The holder of the pupil personnel credential would be authorized to perform the duties of a school psychologist or psychometrist when he had completed the required additional training and the proper notation had been made on the credential.

Is counseling a profession? Though great progress has been made in the analysis of the counseling situation and the classification of training and certification of counselors for school guidance services, there is the question whether counselors have attained the level of other comparable professions. The same questions that Ernest V. Hollis raises in regard to "Social Work Education" in the May 15, 1952, issue of *Higher Education* can be put to persons primarily interested in the status of counseling. Their answers might really be personal opinion or conjecture, for only time will make certain the answers. At least, the questions serve as criteria for those who wish to apply them:

1. Does the profession have a well-defined function, the nature and scope of which can be identified?

2. Does the profession have a philosophy, code of ethics, and other means of self-regulation which assure that its practice transcends the bounds of political, sectarian, and economic self-interest?

3. Does the profession have a unified pattern of organizations that can speak for it with one voice?

4. Does the compensation received by the professional practitioner indicate that the public is willing to pay him as a skilled and responsible professional worker?

5. Is the practice of the profession limit-

ed, or tending to be limited, to persons with approved general and professional preparation?

6. Is there, in fact, a recognized systematic body of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which can be identified and transmitted as a regimen of professional preparation?

7. Is the regimen of professional education recognized as of a quality appropriate for inclusion in the graduate and professional offerings of a university?

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education, assistant dean of students, and director of vocational guidance and placement at the University of Chicago. PROCTER THOMSON, assistant professor of economics and of education at the University of Chicago, writes of the relation of economic factors to education. In the first of two articles he examines some of the long-run factors in detail and discusses their educational implications. EUGENE L. GAIER, research associate in psychology at the Training Research Laboratory of the University of Illinois, gives the results of a study of how the personality characteristics of anxiety, rigidity, and negativism influence the learning process and achievement of students. RUTH AUSTIN, teacher of mathematics at the Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio, describes how her class planned and took a sample poll of their fellow-students, an experience resulting in their getting an understanding of polls and poll-taking useful not only in high school but beyond. J. T. HUNT, assistant professor of education at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, gives an overview of the individual differences in reading found in high-school

students, the backgrounds of these reading differences, their causes, and their implications. JOHN J. FERDIAN, JR., guidance counselor at Federalsburg High School, Federalsburg, Maryland, who formerly held the same position at the Pocomoke High School, Pocomoke City, Maryland, tells how the student personnel of the Guidance Club of the Pocomoke High School helped their fellow-students and how a weekly "Guidance Department Briefs" column in the local newspaper kept students and adults of the community informed about the aims and objectives of the high-school guidance program. PAUL B. JACOBSON, dean of the School of Education, University of Oregon, and ROBERT R. WIEGMAN, assistant professor of education at the University of Portland, Portland, Oregon, present a list of selected references on the organization and administration of secondary education.

Reviewers of books

CLYDE E. CRUM, assistant professor of education, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana. RONALD B. EDGERTON, director of social studies, Brookline Public Schools, Brookline, Massachusetts. ROBERT E. KEOHANE, chairman of the department of social sciences, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS AND SCHOOL FINANCE. I

PROCTER THOMSON

University of Chicago



A RISING LEVEL of national income and productivity has been associated, in the long view, with an increase in the *proportion* of our national dividend expended for public schools. At the turn of the century, approximately 1 per cent of our national income was allocated to the support of public education. By the middle of the 1920's the fraction had risen to 2.5 or 2.6 per cent, and by 1930, to 3.1 per cent.

Within recent decades, however, this tendency has been significantly reversed. During the early years of the depression the fraction of income expended for schools at first rose sharply and then receded, so that the net legacy of the decade was a fall from 3.1 per cent in 1930 to 2.9 per cent in 1940, despite the slightly higher level of real national product in the latter year. The inroads of World War II upon the support given to schools culminated in a figure of 1.5 per cent in 1945, or roughly the same fraction as for the year 1920. By the close of the past decade, 1950-51, the figure stood at 2.1 or 2.2 per cent.

These data pose the following ques-

tions: Is the trend since 1930 the result of permanent underlying forces in the community's preference pattern for education, or is it a result of temporary disturbances which are soon destined to be reversed? In particular, can we anticipate that the figure prevailing at the present date, around 2.5 per cent, represents the consensus of the body politic—as focused and interpreted by our legislative bodies—concerning the share of the national dividend that can reasonably be allocated to the function of public education?

As students of the social process, we should anticipate that, in general, the income elasticity of demand for education would be in excess of unity; in other words, that schools, both as a consumption good and as a form of investment in productive capacity, would take a larger proportional, as well as a larger absolute, share of the goods and services produced by an economy whose level of living is rising. This expectation is borne out by the trend of school revenues and expenditures during, roughly, the initial third of the present century. Of course, as a

matter of simple arithmetic, if we estimate trends on the basis of linear extrapolation between two percentage points at two different periods of time, any component which rises from 1 per cent to 3 per cent of the total over a thirty-year interval is destined to increase to 100 per cent within some finite period of time—in this case slightly under fifteen hundred years. Since this is intuitively implausible, we should expect that such rising components would, after a certain time, increase at a decreasing rate, and we might anticipate that eventually they would cease to increase altogether. Is it, then, possible that we have reached a stage in our economic and social development where public education is approaching such a plateau?

An adequate reply to this question cannot be given until we have explored the major factors that bear upon the community's demand for education. In this survey I shall touch only upon factors that are specifically "economic" in character and shall treat these only in brief summary. The factors considered are (1) the growth in the national income, (2) differential rates of growth of the national income, (3) the changing composition of the national dividend, (4) changes in the pattern of skills and abilities needed in the labor force, (5) the changing role of government in the national economic life, (6) the role of government and the process of social choice, (7) social stratification and mobility, and (8) the short-run factor of inflation. The first four of these factors are discussed in

the present article, and the last four will be treated in an article to be published next month.

IMPACT OF ECONOMIC FACTORS UPON THE DEMAND FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

In tracing the impact of economic factors upon the community's preference for education, a useful distinction to make is that between education as an act of investment, a capital or producers' good, and education as a consumption good. While these two functions are not sharply delineated in practice (indeed, the same curriculum may make substantial contributions under both heads), the advantage of singling out the investment aspect of education for separate study is that a relatively clear and unambiguous economic criterion can be applied as a guide to the amount of resources that can be, and should be, devoted to schools as instruments of productive activity.

In general, the welfare of the community is increased if the real income—its dividend of goods and services—rises. In particular, then, the quantity of resources devoted to education will be of optimum size if the educational apparatus makes its maximum contribution to the community's level of real income. In turn, this means that the final increment of resources utilized by the public schools should yield the same return as the marginal dollar invested in any (all) other sectors of the productive apparatus. In practice, the educational dollar should

secure a return equal to the prevailing long-run rate of interest on capital.

To the foregoing statements, certain qualifications should be made. (1) Income and any additions thereto accrue to individuals rather than to the "community." (2) It is possible to assert unambiguously that the "community" is better off only if the income, or well-being, of any one person is increased without decreasing the well-being of any other person. (3) Investment in certain forms of education, such as training facilities for additional doctors, may increase the national dividend as a whole by raising the income and well-being of some people, while at the same time decreasing, but in lesser amount, the income of other people, such as that of doctors who already have established practices. (4) Therefore, all cases of this type involve the political decision whether to compensate the individuals whose position has deteriorated.

While the interest-rate criterion is clear and definite so far as it goes, its practical application is fraught with difficulty. Sociological and statistical methodology to deal with this range of problems still awaits formulation, so that the best that can be offered in the present state of our knowledge is a series of *ad hoc* pronouncements based on intuitive judgments.

In the "consumption" aspect of education, at least two major areas are involved. One is the enhancement of the individual's level of understanding and awareness; the other is the social function of education in a democratic

society. Put in another way: both functions must operate by and through the individual, but in the first instance we seek to make the individual better informed because of what this means to him, while in the second we concentrate on the improvement of one person because of what this means to other persons.

GROWTH IN THE NATIONAL INCOME

The economic prospect.—The chief characteristic of the economic life of Western Europe and the Americas for the past century or more has been the regular and cumulative increase in total and per capita real income as a net result of technology plus capital accumulation, in an environment characterized by relatively free trade, private ownership, and emphasis upon individualistic-materialistic norms of conduct. (One of the major forms of "capital accumulation" has been investment in the productive capacity of the human agent; so much so, in fact, that the proportion of national wealth represented by intangible capital in people is probably greater in the advanced industrial economies than in the undeveloped areas of the world.)

Educational implications.—Now, by and large, the greater the income per capita, the greater the propensity to save—in other words, the larger the fraction of national income potentially available for capital formation. Assuming that the rate of return on capital will not fall precipitously, or even appreciably, as new increments of investment are added to the existing

stocks (assuming, that is, Knight's theory rather than Keynes's theory), additional savings will lead to additional investment at full or substantially full employment. Then, other things being equal, the greater the aggregate of tangible material capital, the greater will be the productivity of human resources complementary to capital and the greater will be the yield of new resources devoted to further education and training. To the extent to which this mechanism is operative, it indicates, in the foreseeable future, that the fraction of the national income devoted to schools, purely as investment, will rise rather than fall.

The effect of technological change may, however, introduce complications. (I defer till later the effect of technology on levels of skill.) In this context the effect depends on the impact that new methods of production will have upon the relative productivities of human versus nonhuman resources. If inventions are primarily capital-saving and labor-using (raise the marginal product of labor by more than that of "capital"), they will increase the profitability of resources devoted to education and training. But if the inventions are labor-saving, the reverse will be the case.

DIFFERENTIAL RATES OF GROWTH

The economic prospect.—Within our own economy the rate of progress has differed widely between regions and communities, with the net result that

the differential between the more and the less developed areas has probably increased rather than diminished through time. This is certainly the case if we compare a cross-section in 1800 with 1950 and is probably true for comparisons between 1900 and 1950. Even with relatively free mobility of labor out of, and capital into, these economically disfranchised regions, such as portions of the Southern Appalachians, the cutover Great Lakes area, and areas in which there is much of what passes for subsistence agriculture, cultural and political barriers have proved intractable. To this tendency of an increase in the differential between regions, there are, to be sure, notable and significant exceptions, of which the southern tier of counties in Iowa and the Tennessee Valley region offer outstanding examples. It goes without saying that the same tendency is manifest, but to much greater degree, as between Western Europe plus America as a whole and most of Asia, Africa, and portions of South America as a whole.

Educational implications.—Widening the differences in wealth, income, and fiscal capacity of regions probably exerts no direct effect upon the proportional amounts that should be expended for public schools, but it profoundly influences the manner in which the national budget for education should be collected and disbursed. Given our ethical consensus of "equal treatment for equals," individuals

with the same income position should bear identical tax burdens and receive an equivalent level of government services no matter where their place of birth or present residence. The ethical criterion of equivalent services has been advanced with particular urgency in the case of education, but no good reason exists for not applying it to other aspects of government as well.

In a federal system, with substantial local and state autonomy, differences in fiscal capacity of districts and states make realization of this criterion extraordinarily difficult; and the prospect that these differentials are widening rather than narrowing increases the need for forging methods of securing fiscal equity within a federal structure of government. In general, a program of inter-area transfer of government funds in the form of federal aid to the states and state aid to the districts is the only feasible method of securing equity without sacrificing the administrative and political advantages of decentralized control. While the claims of public education under this program cannot legitimately be denied, it must be emphasized once again that health, welfare, and local government, in general, should also participate and that it would be eminently desirable to secure a general or block grant-in-aid to be allocated among these different purposes according to the specific consensus of the states and the localities.

CHANGING COMPOSITION OF THE NATIONAL DIVIDEND

The economic prospect.—As national income increases, the proportion of the total devoted to primary production (agriculture, forestry, and fisheries) falls cumulatively, the fraction taken up by secondary production (industry) rises and then falls gradually, while the proportion allocated to tertiary production (services of all types) cumulatively rises. An interesting aspect of the changing character of our national output is the increased importance placed on leisure. As productivity rises, workers prefer to take an increasing share of the product in the form of shorter hours per day and fewer work days per year.

Educational implications.—The relative decline in primary production, with the concomitant growth of service industries, poses several crucial tasks for public education. In the first place, it is highly probable that service activities require, in general, higher levels of technical skill, adroitness in human relations, and understanding of our cultural heritage than those required by agricultural or factory work. Implications for the educational apparatus are obvious.

In the second place, the declining economic position of the agrarian sector coupled with the relatively high birth rate in rural areas means that migration from farms to cities, in order to equalize earnings of comparable individuals in the two areas, will continue at an accelerated pace. Ac-

cordingly, the vocational content of the rural school must be oriented to the possibility that many, perhaps more than half, of the children born on farms will find employment in other sectors of the economy.

Both these factors—increased emphasis on service activities and the reform of the rural curriculum—point to a rising level of expenditures for public education.

The shorter work week and the increased emphasis on leisure set the stage for a rising level of demand for education as a consumption commodity. While this development is not inevitable, depending as it does upon the cultural needs that are satisfied in leisure-time activities, it is at least possible. In particular, it opens up new vistas for the field of adult education, provided that enough adults can be weaned away from their television sets for one or two evenings a week.

CHANGES IN PATTERN OF SKILLS AND ABILITIES OF THE LABOR FORCES

The economic prospect.—As a result of the changing composition of the national dividend, the kinds of productive activity engaged in by the labor force have systematically altered. In the long view, the most noteworthy example has been the declining importance of agriculture plus the increasing emphasis on factory work. Somewhat less spectacular, but ultimately of equal importance, is the enhanced role

of service activities, such as beauty shops, hotels, and entertainment.

Tendencies toward changes of levels of skill are much more difficult to assess. It has long been a commonplace of economic folklore that the growth of factory technology is responsible for replacing skilled craftsmanship by unskilled machine-tending. But, by the same token, complex mechanical equipment requires engineers and scientists to design it, skilled machinists to fabricate it, and expert mechanics to keep it in running order. Moreover, to the extent to which the new technology is completely automatic, it merely replaces one group of skilled craftsmen (hand fabricators) by another (mechanics and machinists). Evidence as to the net result, or the balance, of these opposing forces is incomplete and fragmentary.

On the other hand, the changing composition of the national dividend, with increased emphasis on service-type industries, places increasing reliance on types of activities in which elements of skill, such as adroitness in human relations, are of conspicuous importance.

Educational implications.—While tendencies toward changes of levels of skill are difficult to assess, my presumption that demand is increasing for higher levels of skill and competence means that relatively larger numbers of technical and professional personnel will be turned out by the educational apparatus. It is interesting to note, however, that apprehension is expressed in some quarters that

we are producing, for example, too many college graduates or too many engineers and professional men. As evidence, it is pointed out that *relative* (though not, of course, *absolute*) earnings of executives and professional people have been declining within recent decades. To the extent to which this evidence is correct, it may indicate merely that entry into the professional class was artificially restricted by social and other barriers and therefore that the earnings structure did not represent an equalizing differen-

tial for the relative abilities actually involved.

In my next article I will examine some additional long-run economic factors—the changing role of government in the national economic life, the role of government in social choice, and social stratification and mobility—and discuss their educational implications, and then consider the short-run economic factor, inflation, and its effect on school revenue.

[To be concluded]

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELECTED PERSONALITY VARIABLES AND THE THINKING OF STUDENTS IN DISCUSSION CLASSES

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INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR acquires meaning for personality diagnosis and research only when the investigator is employing some hypothetical construct or when the behavior is interpreted in terms of some larger context. A particular observation of behavior can rarely be used as conclusive evidence of some personality characteristic. Rather, in an attempt to determine the underlying pattern, each observation must be interrelated to series of observations. It is this characteristic of personality which makes research difficult and often misleads the research worker and which also renders it difficult for the classroom teacher to make creative use of personality concepts in the classroom and to know how to view, or work with, individuals who differ widely.

One of the great hopes for research on the relation between personality and learning is the possibility that a small number of personality characteristics are really significant for school learning as distinguished from the much larger number which may have significance for individual diagnosis and therapy. If some small number of

characteristics can be identified and defined in behavioral terms, the average teacher can learn to recognize and make use of them in dealing with the individual student.

THE PROBLEM AND SETTING

This paper reports a study investigating the relation between three selected personality characteristics, the learning processes in the classroom, and the achievement of students as revealed by examinations. This study represents detailed investigation of only eleven subjects over a period of four months.

The class investigated was one in the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago. For this course, the students read original papers from American history, such as the writings of Paine, Jefferson, and Calhoun; *The Federalist*; the Constitution; and Supreme Court testimony and decisions. They spend their time in class discussing what the paper states; the organization of, and the bases for, the paper; the general principles involved; and the implications of the ideas. Perhaps the striking thing about this course is

the attempt to develop not only a knowledge about American history but also the ability to read analytically in this field and the ability to think clearly about the fundamental problems in this area of the social sciences. The particular group studied was a special class for students admitted at the middle of the year. The instructor was a very able teacher, who had a relatively warm and supportive relation with the students.

The co-operation of members of the class, as well as that of the instructor, was secured on a purely voluntary basis. Student participation included the taking of tests in addition to being subject to a series of interviews.

METHODS AND TYPES OF DATA

1. *Data on personality.*—Evidence on personality was secured by means of the Rorschach test. Individual Rorschach records were independently judged by two experts. Ranks were assigned to the students on the three personality characteristics believed to be relevant for learning: anxiety, rigidity, and negativism. (The coefficients of rank correlation [ρ] between the judges on each characteristic ranged from .75 to .85, indicating relatively high objectivity.)

2. *Data on thoughts in classroom.*—The second type of data represented an attempt to get at the learning process in the classroom. Although the discussion classes permit considerable freedom, our experience has shown that only about a third of the students participate overtly at any one class session. It would be a mistake, how-

ever, to say that the remaining two-thirds of the students are not involved in the learning process.

Starting from introspection, it seems that a major type of interaction of the learner with the learning situation is in his conscious thoughts. These are the thoughts of which the individual is aware and which he can reveal if he desires, if he has the opportunity, and if he possesses the necessary skills in communication. Although the classroom situation may physically imprison an individual, in his thoughts he is free to leave the immediate environment, to occupy himself with features of the environment which are irrelevant to the purposes of the school or class, or to cope with the learning problems posed in the class.

Because of time considerations, only a relatively small proportion of these conscious thoughts can possibly be expressed in overt verbal form. An individual may deliberately hide or mask many of these thoughts before giving verbal expression to them in order to protect his own security and to protect the feelings of others. Some of these thoughts may be withheld from overt expression because the individual may regard them as irrelevant, immaterial, or false. Other thoughts may not be revealed because he is not sure of their adequacy or because he has difficulty in expressing and communicating them to the group. The conditions under which the group is established and organized largely determine the thoughts the individual is free to verbalize and those which he must keep hidden.

The study of these conscious thoughts represents one of the most intriguing problems in educational and social psychology. When one individual is speaking, what are the thoughts of the other members of the group? What are the variety of thoughts which characterize selected individuals or a group? What types of stimuli or what portions of the environment are given maximal attention and which are given only minimal attention? How can the thoughts of individuals be related to the overt activities, and what is the effect of one kind of learning situation in comparison with that of another?

In an effort to investigate the nature of these conscious thoughts in classroom situations, use has been made of a method of reviving students' memories after the class session. This method of "stimulated recall," introduced by Bloom,¹ has proved itself to be very promising. The basic idea underlying the method of stimulated recall is that a subject may be enabled to relive an original situation with great vividness and accuracy if he is presented with a large number of the cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation. With cues to furnish the framework, a great many associations will return—many with great vividness. Since the individual is a participant in an event at one time and is a subject reporting his conscious thought participation after the event, this type of investigation

can be carried on in such a way as to have only minimal effect on the nature of the original situation.

It is clear that, among the different kinds of cues available in learning situations, tactile and olfactory cues play only a very small role—at least in middle-class school situations. Although visual cues would seem to be extremely useful, the fact that each individual (by virtue of his geographical position in the room) has a unique view of the situation would seem to rule out the possibility of a single set of visual cues being equally useful to all students for reviving memory. The one set of cues which would seem to be most attended to and which are almost equally available to all in the classroom are the auditory cues. In most classrooms, verbal forms of communication are central, and all members of the group are expected to heed such cues. In addition, sound cues are easily recorded and are convenient for playing back to the students.

In this investigation, sound recordings were made during the entire class period and then played back to the students within a brief period of time, usually forty-eight hours. Under the major assumption that the cues enable a person to recall a total situation which is composed of both overt activities and conscious thoughts, there is a means by which to infer the accuracy of the recall. Thus, a number of studies have been made in which the recording is played back to students and they are asked to tell what overt events—activities, specific talk, or particular gestures and mannerisms

¹ Benjamin S. Bloom, "The Study of Conscious Thought-Processes by the Method of Stimulated Recall." Unpublished study.

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—follow immediately after that particular point in the recording. Within two days, as high as 95 per cent accurate recall of the overt, checkable events was found.² Such recall follows the usual memory-curve decline, and over a two-week period the accuracy of recall drops to about 65 per cent. Other studies have been made to determine the accuracy of the individual's recall of activities which occurred simultaneously with particular sound cues, and the results have been about the same.

The inference that the recall of private, conscious thoughts approximates the recall of the overt, observable events has led to the anticipation that the accuracy of the recall of conscious thoughts is high enough for most studies of learning situations—if the interviews are made within a short time after the event. Other evidence on the validity of the recall supports these inferences. However, it should be noted that these are inferences about the *recall*, rather than the *report*, of individual students. The extent to which a student will report the most private of his thoughts is largely a function of the rapport which is established in the interview situation. Also, students do not report all their thoughts; frequently they select and report the thoughts they believe most relevant, or they characterize their thoughts rather than report them as they occurred.

In the present study, eight class ses-

sions during the course were investigated. In each case the students were interviewed individually within forty-eight hours after the original class. As the recording was played back to them, they were asked at a number of selected critical points to report the thoughts they had experienced during the original situation. They were also invited to volunteer reports of thoughts occurring at other times, which they believed to be important or relevant. From time to time, checks were made on the accuracy of their recall of the succeeding overt, observable events. It was found possible to classify these thoughts with a high degree of objectivity. The frequency with which particular classifications of thoughts were reported by the students was the means by which these data were quantified. Individuals could thus be ranked in terms of frequencies, and these ranks could be correlated with ranks on anxiety, rigidity, and negativism.

3. *Data on achievement.*—The third type of data represents the learning outcomes or products. Comprehensive examinations form the sole basis on which students are finally graded in the College. These examinations, which cover the work of an entire year in a subject, are usually six hours in length. Each examination is carefully made by a competent examiner with some help from the instructional staff. The examinations are designed to measure the extent to which students have achieved the major objectives of the course, and the total score of these examinations is rarely related signifi-

² Eugene L. Gaier, "A Study of Memory under Conditions of Stimulated Recall," *Journal of General Psychology* [forthcoming].

cantly to personality characteristics. However, it appeared that an analysis of the examination on the basis of the complexity and ambiguity of the problem-solving required would be likely to have clearer relations to personality variables. By using the definitions of types of problem-solving provided by the "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives" prepared by a national group of college and university examiners, four major divisions in this examination were found:

1. *Knowledge of specific information.*—This includes facts and generalizations which the student is expected to remember from the readings and discussions.
2. *Analysis of a written document.*—This includes the identification of the main argument, the recognition of basic assumptions, and the interrelationships among the various parts of the paper.
3. *Application of ideas and principles.*—This includes the comparison of two or more papers in which the ideas of one are related and applied to those of another.
4. *Synthesis of ideas.*—This includes the comparison of ideas taken from different sources with a view to showing their interrelationships.

ANXIETY IN THE CLASSROOM

In the ratings of anxiety it seemed desirable to arrange the subjects in terms of the extent to which they can resist becoming fearful and panicky in situations that may threaten their own self-esteem. Individuals vary in the extent to which they can handle or cope with threatening situations before they resort to behavior which is maladaptive. It is anticipated that such threatening situations frequently occur in discussion classes and are

most certainly found in examination circumstances.

In the studies of the classroom learning situations it was found that the anxious individual spends about half his time thinking about himself rather than about the problems under consideration.³ There was a correlation of +.45 between the extent of thoughts about the self and the anxiety level. Most of these thoughts of the anxious individual revolved around feelings of inadequacy, both as a person and as a member of the class.

The anxious individual also spends considerable class time in thinking about specific objects in the classroom ($\rho = +.55$), such as people's dress, the blackboard, an odd chair, a crack in the wall, something concrete and tangible which provides little challenge or self-threat. He spends some time in actually thinking about the problems being discussed, but this rarely involves formulation of answers to problems being raised. Rather, much of his thinking is directed to finding additional applications of solutions formulated by others.

In general, it may be said that the anxious individual responds to situations in terms of familiar and readily available responses. These responses are focused largely on the self or on some tangible and easily available part of the environment. They are less frequently responses which are adaptive to the problem or situation.

In examination situations the indi-

³Eugene L. Gaier, "Selected Personality Variables and the Learning Process," *Psychological Monographs* [forthcoming].

viduals who are most prone to anxiety do as well as others on the knowledge of specific information ($\rho = +.34$), but they do relatively poorly on problems which involve analysis, application, or synthesis ($\rho = -.48$; $-.61$; $-.42$). It is likely that anxiety does not disturb simple memory function but does disturb more complex problem-solving behavior. Although considerable motivation is necessary to get individuals to do their best in examination situations, the data indicate that means must be found to reduce the tension and feeling of danger of some of the students if we are to get them to do their best problem-solving.

It is evident that, although they may be extremely capable, anxious individuals are rarely able to achieve at a level commensurate with their ability. While there may be direct therapeutic attacks on this anxiety, it would seem the problem of the teacher to identify anxious individuals and to find ways of reducing the amount of tension in the learning or the testing situation. Specifically, it might be possible for the teacher to build a good relationship with anxious students so that the students might volunteer in the discussion rather than be called upon directly. The student must get to recognize learning situations as opportunities for development and for trying out ideas, rather than as threatening situations in which he is competing with others or in which he is being judged by the teacher. Acquiring this attitude is *possible where the teacher is concerned with the educa-*

tional process rather than with securing judgments on which to base grades.

RIGIDITY IN THE CLASSROOM

The second personality variable investigated, undoubtedly not independent of the first one discussed, is what we have termed rigidity. This is the inability of an individual to change his set or his approach, when it is inappropriate, to one more appropriate to the demands of the situation. Rigidity involves a stiffness or resistance to attempts to produce change. In effect, the individual makes use of stereotyped reactions even when these habits, sets, and behavior are not fully appropriate or adaptive to the situation. Our Rorschach experts ranked the subjects along a continuum of generalized rigidity.

Like the anxious individual, the rigid person spends a great deal of time in class thinking about himself. The rigid person spends less time than other students in thinking about the teacher ($\rho = -.55$) or about the other members in the class ($\rho = -.20$). It was discovered that one of the outstanding characteristics of the rigid person is the tendency to continue thinking about specific words and phrases used in the class long after the group has gone on to other matters ($\rho = +.62$). These individuals also become easily irritated or bored with the class ($\rho = +.43$), become concerned about the rate at which members of the class talk and the pace at which the class moves, and are especially bothered by the lack of clarity or the lack of clear and definite

answers to questions. They spend more time than other students in thinking about the concrete objects within sight and hearing ($\rho = +.43$).

It is clear that the rigid person does not fully participate in the problem-solving of the class but is too much occupied with himself and with minutiae in the situation. This would in part explain his difficulty in solving problems on the comprehensive examinations. The implications for the teaching situation are not so clear. Luchins⁴ has shown relationships between rigidity and problem-solving which are in agreement with these. Bloom and Broder's work⁵ on problem-solving remediation has indicated that individuals can become more flexible in their attack on problems if they can become more fully conscious of what they are doing and can become aware of the variety of approaches which have been used by others. That is, they cannot invent new ways of attacking problems, but they can become aware of the extent to which they are perseverating in a particular kind of attack as well as the variety of attacks which are possible.

When rigidity was related to the tests of learning outcomes, a pattern of relationship supporting current theories of problem-solving and per-

sonality was found. The rigid students tended to be the best in knowledge of specific information ($\rho = +.73$); that is, they were good in remembering facts and generalizations previously presented to them. There was a slight positive relation between rigidity and the ability to make use of the analytical methods studied in the course ($\rho = +.20$), but rigid students were almost completely unable to apply ideas and principles to new situations or to effect any synthesis or integration of the ideas ($\rho = -.71$). Thus, the data would indicate that the rigid individual is well able to handle highly structured, specific, and familiar material but is unable to interrelate such material or to apply it to new situations.

NEGATIVISM IN THE CLASSROOM

The third personality characteristic studied is what has been termed negativism, or a generalized attitude of opposition to ideas, suggestions, and commands, as well as to people. There is an impulse to disagree, to be hypercritical, and to be unco-operative.

About a third of the time in class is spent by the negative individuals in evaluating (negatively) other students and the teacher or in depreciating the ideas being discussed. The extent to which these negative thoughts are about people or ideas seems to be a function of the level of intelligence, with the more intelligent individuals attacking (in thought) the ideas. The negative individuals spend considerable time in thinking about situations and events which are completely out-

⁴Abraham S. Luchins, "Social Influence on Perception of Complex Drawings," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XXI (May 26, 1945), 257-73.

⁵Benjamin S. Bloom and Lois J. Broder, *Problem-solving Processes of College Students: An Exploratory Investigation*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 73. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950.

side the classroom or which are irrelevant to the class discussion. They are easily distracted and appear to be under a good deal of tension.

One of the major problems of a teacher in handling a discussion is to recognize the presence of these hypercritical individuals and to avoid being lured into spending too much class time in following the false scents raised by such individuals—especially when these are brought up primarily to gratify the needs of the negative individuals for opposition rather than because of clear relevance to the problems being discussed. If their thoughts can be properly channeled, negative individuals can be highly stimulating members of a discussion class. If their negativism can be turned to ideas rather than people, they may, by virtue of this negativism, become highly creative and original in problem-solving. Thus, negativism, if properly used, can become a useful social characteristic. To the extent to which it is merely generalized opposition, it is frustrating and tension-producing for the individual and useless to the group.

There was almost no relationship between negativism and examination scores, the highly negative individuals doing as well as other students.

SUMMARY

In summary, it has been found that particular personality characteristics, which can be identified before a course begins, will determine the nature of the individual's class participation (at

least in thought). As teachers try to develop discussion methods to help individuals learn ways of attacking complex problems, they must learn not only to recognize these characteristics but to develop methods of coping with them. Many discussion procedures remain ineffective and represent wasted time until the leader learns how to adapt them, not only to the varied intellectual abilities of the students, but also to the varied personality characteristics of the group. If educators are to make more effective use of these costly and time-consuming instructional methods, they must find ways of sharpening what is now a very blunt tool.

Significant relations have also been found between personality characteristics and measures of achievement. The personality characteristics described are especially important in determining the extent to which individuals can do complex problem-solving. If the objectives of instruction are limited to the acquisition of information, these personality characteristics are relatively unimportant. When the attempt is made to develop students' ability to do critical thinking and the ability to relate ideas learned in a course to new situations, personality characteristics must be considered. Thus, as the schools attempt to develop more complex and, it is hoped, useful traits in the individuals, it becomes important to consider not only the level of scholastic aptitude of students but their personality characteristics as well.

THE CONSUMER MATHEMATICS CLASS TAKES A SAMPLE POLL

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CONSUMER MATHEMATICS, as an elective course for twelfth-grade students, had its beginning in three Cincinnati high schools on an experimental basis in the year 1951-52. The purposes of this course are to make the mathematics program more functional and of greater service to the community and to make the students better consumers, wiser in managing their money, more careful in planning for protection against economic risks, and more intelligent in using supplies and services. Some of the topics included in the course are wise buying, insurance, banking, consumer credit, elementary statistics, taxation, and investments.

The students seem to feel that this course is helping them with everyday life now and is preparing them for experiences which they will meet within the next few years. They have been interested, enthusiastic, and willing to work. They have also enjoyed the feeling of being pioneers in working out a new course. When the class took up a new topic, the students were eager to contribute what they could to the study of that field. For example, one

of the units which appealed to them most was a study of costs in operating a car, especially ways of saving money. They brought in figures on the cost of running the family car, the price of insurance policies, and trade-in allowances. Two of the boys who had ancient cars of their own were most helpful in telling the class the pitfalls to avoid. The students themselves developed this unit of study into one which was of value to the entire class.

DECIDING TO TAKE A POLL

Shortly before Christmas the class planned an especially interesting project. They were beginning the study of a unit on elementary statistics. The first part of this unit in their textbook poses the question: "What guides should be followed in collecting data?" In answering this question, the book states that data must be representative, comparable, and relevant. The public opinion polls conducted by George Gallup, by Elmo Roper, and by *Fortune* magazine were discussed in class. Examples of polls which were taken by mail or by telephone, or in some other way from a group that

was not representative of the whole population, were also presented and analyzed by the class. The method of sampling to discover the opinion of a large group was explained and discussed. Some students did not believe that a sample poll could ever give a true picture of the thinking of a large group. Others argued that the method of sampling does work if the sample is carefully chosen to be truly representative.

Then came the question: "Can't the class try it out here at school? Why can't the class take a sample poll?" Most of the students were enthusiastic about the idea. It was decided that they would consult the principal about taking, first, a sample poll and, after tabulating results, a poll of the whole student body in order to test whether the sample was a good one. The principal agreed to the proposal and arranged for the mimeographing of the questionnaire.

Next, the class had to agree upon a topic and a list of questions for the poll. Some topics which were considered and rejected were favorite assembly programs, the school activity fee, and those hardy perennials, homework, examinations, and the girls' graduation dresses. After much class discussion and the taking of two votes, it was decided to make a questionnaire about the future plans of all the students in the school after leaving high school. The questionnaire was made up by the class as a whole. It was worked out on the blackboard, step by step, with students suggesting the

form and the wording of the questions. The group listened to the boy who wanted to find out what proportion of his schoolmates would volunteer for military service and what proportion would wait to be drafted, and to the girls who were interested in finding out how many of their classmates were planning marriage. Perhaps the class accepted too many suggestions; it was realized later that the questionnaire should have been more concise, with fewer alternatives.

TAKING THE SAMPLE POLL

The questionnaire was mimeographed by a group from the type-writing classes. It had been decided that the questionnaire should not require a signature but that the responding pupil's home room should be indicated so that the answers could be classified according to grade and sex. The class decided upon a 10 per cent sample of the school. Enrolment figures, giving the membership of each grade, boys and girls separately, were obtained from the school office. One day's classwork problem was the working-out of percentages of each of the eight grade divisions to constitute a 10 per cent sample (213 students) of the total student body. Figures on home-room enrolments were secured, and the sample questionnaires were assigned to the home rooms in proportion to their enrolment. Then the questionnaires were given out to the class members who were to conduct personal interviews. Because the sample poll was taken at the Christ-

mas season, when there was more absence than usual, each class member who was present was responsible for nine or ten questionnaires.

The pollsters took the questionnaires to the home rooms in the morning before school and conducted the assigned number of interviews. It was recognized that this method of interviewing introduced an element of bias into the poll since none of the absent students were polled. The class recognized this limitation in the study, but it was felt that absentees could not be reached within the short time available for the poll.

The pollsters enjoyed their interviewing experience and came back to class with reports of what they had learned. A captain was appointed to receive the reports on each of the eight groups (twelfth-grade boys, twelfth-grade girls, eleventh-grade boys, and so forth) and to tabulate them. When all reports were in, each member of the class received two poll report sheets and recorded on them the figures which had been tabulated by the captains. They worked out the per cents for each group, and each student recorded them on his poll sheets.

RESULTS OF THE SAMPLE POLL

In the class discussion of the results of the sample poll, the students expressed the belief that the sample could not have been representative. The point which bothered them most was that only 4 of the 213 polled students would admit that they did not expect to finish high school. It was ap-

parent from the collected data on withdrawals from the school that the per cent would run higher than the sample indicated. The point was brought out that this particular question might have introduced what Gallup calls the "prestige factor" in opinion-testing: a person being interviewed will not express a particular opinion if he feels that it will make others have less respect for him. The class wondered if the prestige factor would have the same effect in the general poll of the whole school population. They were eager to take the general poll and test the validity of the sample.

THE GENERAL POLL

The general poll was taken in home rooms on January 9. Home-room teachers distributed and collected the questionnaires. (Again it is necessary to recognize an element of bias introduced here in not including absent students.) The consumer mathematics class spent the entire period that day counting and tabulating results. Two additional poll report sheets were issued to each member of the class, and again the whole class tabulated and worked out per cents, first for each of the eight grade divisions, then for each whole grade, for all boys, for all girls, and for the whole school.

Next came the comparison of results on the sample poll with those on the general poll, and a day was spent in discussing and summarizing the experiment. A chart was worked out on the blackboard with colored chalk to

show those areas where there seemed to be the greatest discrepancy between the sample and the total population polls. In all grades except Grade IX, the sample seemed to be representative. The question was raised whether the ninth-grade group might still be a representative sample even though the discrepancy with the general poll appeared to be the greatest of all the grades polled. Further investigation revealed, however, that to determine this would involve statistics beyond the beginning level.

QUESTIONS RAISED BY THE POLL-TAKING

During the days when the poll was being taken and results tabulated, the students had raised various questions that could not be fully discussed until the tabulation was completed. A list was now written on the board as a center for discussion:

1. Why are there only 79 "No" replies to the first poll question, referring to students' plans to graduate from high school, from the entire student body? Past experience indicates that many more students will quit school before graduation.
2. Why does the sample appear to be so far wrong on the question about going on to higher education? For example, why does the sample poll show only 46.5 per cent of the Seniors answering this question affirmatively, while the population poll shows 61 per cent affirmative answers from the Seniors as a group.
3. It appears that the sample of Grade IX was not representative. Was it representative, or was it not?
4. Was the sample, as a whole, representative?
5. How could the questionnaire and the sample be improved?
6. What conclusions can be drawn?
7. What can be learned from the poll-taking experience which will be helpful both now and after graduation?

In the class discussion of Questions 6 and 7, lists were drawn up on the blackboard as follows:

What conclusions can be drawn from the poll?

1. In a small group, a sample poll can give accurate results. The degree of accuracy depends upon the way the sample is chosen.

2. The sample was representative and well chosen, within the limits of the time that could be spent on the poll.

3. Results might have been better if the alternative answers to the question about plans after high-school graduation had been clearer and fewer in number.

4. If the questionnaire had polled a matter of *opinion* rather than intentions, results might have been better.

5. It might have been wise to have students sign their names on the questionnaire. Signing their names would have made them feel that the poll was an important matter, and they would have answered more carefully.

6. Students are unwilling to admit, even on unsigned questionnaires, that they will leave school before graduation. Questions on this topic should be phrased to recognize the influence of this prestige factor.

7. If 52 per cent of the school's students plan to go on to higher education, competition for college entrance and for scholarships will probably be keen. The implication might be that the students will have to work harder.

8. If only 18 per cent of the boys expect to go into the armed service, are all the boys facing the future realistically?

What did the students learn from the poll-taking experience which will be helpful now and after graduation?

1. Some of the problems involved in

handling statistics, such as the phrasing of questions, the selection of the persons to be polled, and the collection and tabulation of data.

2. A clearer understanding of the sampling method of testing public opinion, as used in the polls conducted by Gallup, Roper, and others.

3. The fact that the sample must be carefully chosen if it is to be representative of the whole group. A random selection from the group would probably give the best results, and care should be taken to insure that those absent at the time of the polling be interviewed later.

4. The realization that care must be used in drawing conclusions from the collected data.

5. The awareness that polls cited in advertising should be viewed skeptically unless methods of collecting data are fully explained.

6. An appreciation of the difficulties in poll-taking. Although it appears simple, polling is a very complicated business and has to be done scientifically. Taking a poll was a fine experience for the high-school students, and they found it to be both work and fun. A real poll, however, requires expert personnel.

Viewed as a whole, the poll-taking experience was rewarding, even though the students became sharply aware of their limitations in a field which requires experts. In taking a poll of their own, the students learned much about the problems involved in poll-taking and should, consequently, be more able to judge the polls which are constantly being brought to the attention of the public.

WHAT HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS SHOULD KNOW ABOUT INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN READING

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SILENT READING as a means of obtaining knowledge is required in almost all study activities in the average high school. This emphasis upon extensive reading places heavy demands upon all students and especially upon those who read slowly or with poor understanding. Since reading is a complex skill which must be adapted to the unique requirements of different kinds of subject matter and to the purposes in reading, it is unlikely that all students will have the minimum proficiency expected for satisfactory work.

As the basic tool of learning in the high school, reading becomes the basic problem of learning when reading skills of a considerable number of the students are deficient or when an unusually wide range of reading ability exists within any given class. Inexperienced teachers are frequently amazed at the extent of individual differences in reading achievement, while experienced teachers are probably more often discouraged than surprised at the variation. This article will discuss some of the backgrounds of reading

differences, their causes, and their implications.

VARIABILITY IN READING ABILITY

It is sometimes implied that first-grade children start off their educational careers at about the same reading level and thus would be rather homogeneous in reading ability upon entering high school if the various teachers had been alert to the needs and problems of the pupils during the intervening years. Actually, from the first day of Grade I, the teacher meets an ever widening range of ability and background. First-grade children differ greatly in their language facility, knowledge of stories, experiences with materials, visual discrimination, general information, and attitudes toward reading and school. On entrance in school, one pupil may be reading as well as the average second- or third-grader; another may not yet be reading when he is in Grade III.

Reported results vary from grade to grade, but an average range of reading achievement would be about three to five grade levels in any primary grade,

five to eight grade levels in any one of the middle or upper elementary-school grades, and eight to twelve grade levels in any given high-school grade.

A widely quoted study by Kottmeyer¹ shows a wide range of reading achievement for two successive groups of eighth-grade graduates of the St. Louis public schools. Presumably, the median grade placement for these two groups would be around 8.9 or 9.0, or typical achievement expected at the end of Grade VIII or the beginning of Grade IX. Although the median score was fairly close to this figure, only 29 per cent of the 7,380 pupils made scores which gave them a grade placement between 8.0 and 9.9. The highest per cent scoring within any one grade was only 17. The range was from third-grade achievement and *below* (2 per cent) to college Freshman level and *above* (2.5 per cent). Since some of the lower 2 per cent may have scored as low as the average first- or second-grade pupil and some of the top 2 per cent may have scored as high as the average college Sophomore or Junior, the range for those pupils who had just completed Grade VIII was probably at least thirteen grades.

The St. Louis survey is in keeping with results of studies of smaller communities, which show almost the same range. When published, the recently completed North Carolina curriculum study will show similar results. The director of the survey made the reading-test papers available to the writer

in order that the range for small North Carolina schools might be determined. The first two samples comprised thirty-seven seventh-graders in one small town and thirty-eight seventh-graders in another town. One sample had a grade placement of from 3.3 to 11.9; the other of from 4.0 to 12.5. A greater range no doubt exists in these two schools but is not evident because of the limitations of the survey procedures: (1) sampling about 25 per cent of the pupils rather than testing the entire school population and (2) discarding all papers in which the pupils would not or could not respond.

Further data from the North Carolina study show ranges in grade placement on the California Reading Tests for the middle 80 per cent of the pupils as follows: Grade III, 2.2; Grade V, 3.1; Grade VII, 4.4; Grade X, 5.2. When the two extreme 10 per cent groups are included, the respective ranges jump to five and one-half grades, almost eight grades, eleven grades, and thirteen grades.

With such great differences in achievement, it is inevitable that considerable overlapping exists from grade to grade. High and low scores on the Iowa Silent Reading Test for over 9,000 students were found to be almost identical in each grade from Grade IX through Grade XII, even though the median score was higher for each successive grade group.² The range of scores for Grade IX was from 117 to 215; for Grade X, from

¹ William Kottmeyer, "Improving Reading Instruction in the St. Louis Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (September, 1944), 33-38.

² 1946 Fall Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies, p. 19. Educational Records Bulletin, No. 47. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1947.

125 to 215; Grade XI, from 122 to 219, and Grade XII, from 125 to 217. In this study, 9 per cent of the twelfth-grade students were reading at or below the average level for ninth-graders, while 7 per cent of the ninth-graders were reading at or above the average for the Seniors.

Of ninety-one high-school Freshmen in one small city, eight were reading at least as well as the average college Sophomore, and twelve were reading no better than average fourth- or fifth-grade pupils.³

CAUSES OF WIDESPREAD DIFFERENCES

Finding specific causes for specific differences is not an easy task, but certain generalizations may be made with confidence.

Mental age.—One of the most obvious explanations lies in the mental maturity of the pupils. In general, it is expected that few pupils having mental ages below 6.0 or 6.5 will succeed in mastering the simple reading tasks of Grade I without considerable difficulty. A conservative estimate of the intelligence quotients of pupils entering Grade I would be from a low of 75 to a high of 125. These intelligence quotients represent mental ages of 4.5 and 7.5, respectively, assuming the pupils have just reached their sixth birthday. Since pupils entering Grade I may vary in chronological age by about a year, the differences in mental age will be even greater. A range of four to five years in mental age as

shown by individual intelligence tests is not unexpected in Grade I.

Theoretically, then, on the basis of mental age only, some pupils entering school will not be ready to read for two or more years; others have been ready for a year or so and may actually be reading. Data from the North Carolina survey show that almost 10 per cent of those tested in the second half of Grade II were not yet "ready" to read as evinced by critical scores on reading-readiness tests. Mental maturity is only one of the factors of reading readiness. Other factors are physical and motor readiness and the elusive but important emotional readiness.

Reading an aspect of total growth.—

One of the fortunate trends in elementary-school reading programs is the recognition and application of the concept that the teaching of reading is basically a problem of child development. Child-development studies have stressed the types of individual differences discussed here. A further important consideration for all teachers lies in the reciprocal influences of reading and child development. Just as progress in reading is influenced by the stage of development of the child, so is child development influenced by the child's reading interests and abilities. Achievement in reading, as well as general school achievement, has been shown to be more closely related to total development than to any single factor, such as mental age or chronological age.⁴

³ J. M. McCallister, *Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading*, p. 5. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936.

⁴ Willard C. Olson, *Child Development*, chap. ii. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949.

An interesting study of physical-growth lags was made by Dr. Binning, medical director of the schools of Saskatchewan, Saskatchewan. It shows the effect that the teacher and his methods may have upon children. Reporting on the use of the Wetzal grid in appraising physical fitness, Dr. Binning says in conclusion:

Firstly, we could *not* pick out those children getting extra nutrition in school. Secondly, we could *not* tell on these records the years of our two nutritional campaigns. *But we could tell sometimes the teacher in whose room certain children had spent a certain grade by their growth lag that year.*⁵

Certainly, all aspects of growth and development are interrelated. Many children show emotional maladjustment which has apparently resulted from reading difficulties. Poor reading ability is doubtless an important reason why many high-school students drop out of school, even though the reasons given may have been "school too hard," "subjects not interesting," "to get a job," or "didn't like the school."

Among the many other concepts of child development that have implications for individual differences in reading, only two more will be given. One of these is that upon entering Grade I, girls are already about a year ahead of boys in language facility. This is reflected in the fact that, among those who experience reading failure in Grades I or II, the ratio of boys to girls is about three to one. This sex difference in verbal fluency tends to

exist throughout the school years. The second is that reading interests and habits are closely related to total growth. For example, early-maturing boys and girls have more mature reading interests than do children maturing more slowly.

Nature of reading.—Individual differences exist and become greater because of the nature of reading itself and the demands that schools make on reading. The old cliché that we "learn to read in the first three grades and then read to learn" is true only in part. In the first place, as I have pointed out, pupils may not learn to read at the lower level. Further, third-grade reading is still only third-grade reading and does not resemble too closely the type of reading the student is called upon to do later. It is interesting to note that "literacy" is defined by the United States Census Bureau as ability to read on the average fourth-grade level or beyond.

Because reading is not a simple unitary or general skill but a complex organization of many specific skills, additional differences in reading achievement are to be found. It follows that a good reader of short stories may not be a good reader of science materials, that a good reader of biological science materials may not be a good reader of physical-science or social-science materials. Although it is expected that the abilities within a person are related, an individual's achievement in various subject areas or in reading skills may vary considerably. On a battery of standardized reading tests administered by the writer, the

⁵ Griffith Binning, "Peace Be on Thy House," *Health*, XVI (March-April, 1948), 6-7. Toronto 5, Canada: Health League of Canada.

achievements of a ninth-grade boy ranged from a low-fourth-grade level on speed to a twelfth-grade level on ability to read history. Other scores fell between these two, and considerable difference was found in his knowledge of technical vocabulary in several subject areas. Because any reading test only samples the many reading skills, even students who receive the same score on a given test may vary considerably in certain specific skills, such as ability to use contextual clues, to skim, to follow directions, or to use reference materials. Thus, knowing that a person reads at the eleventh-grade level may not be too meaningful unless one knows the test and the skills that it measures.

Promotional policies.—Promotional practices and compulsory school laws help to increase existing differences by moving children farther through the grades and keeping them in school longer than they, particularly the less capable children, had been previously kept. In the last fifty years the per cent of boys and girls aged 14-17 in school has increased from about 10 to 80. High-school students are no longer a highly select group. Widespread failure of 25-40 per cent of the first-graders is no longer common practice. Although acceleration of the more capable pupils was never so prevalent as retardation of the slower pupils, the present reluctance toward both acceleration and retardation tends to keep both poor and excellent pupils in their age group. With homogeneous age groups, differences in mental age necessarily increase with age.

Teaching efficiency.—Another cause of wide differences in reading may be attributed to the teachers themselves, not only because of the skills they do or do not teach, but also because of differences in their methods, guidance, and inspiration. Good teaching increases differences through bringing out the possibilities of all. Mass teaching tends to restrict differences. It is understood, of course, that a considerable range of reading achievement is not, in itself, satisfactory evidence of good teaching.

IMPLICATIONS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHING

Acceptance of the facts.—Individual differences are to be expected—not eliminated or tolerated. They should be recognized as signposts giving direction to the act of teaching and be taken advantage of. With a realistic acceptance of individual differences in reading usually comes a more charitable attitude both toward the student who is deficient in reading and toward the teachers in previous grades who, it is suspected, did not teach the pupil very much but solved their problem by promoting him.

Accepting individual differences as the normal result of many conditions over which teachers have only limited control implies that there must be a willingness to accept the pupil for instruction at his own level. There is little place in modern education for the philosophy of the teacher who complained that more than a third of his students were unable to do the work he required. One is justified in

speaking of average tenth-grade work but not of one level expected of all tenth-graders.

Norms must be accepted for what they are. They are not standards but are only averages, and the extremes at each end of the distribution entered into the average which made that norm. Probably 30 per cent or more of all elementary- or high-school pupils who are referred to reading specialists are not really retarded but are reading up to their mental level. Many pupils will never reach the norm for their grade even under ideal circumstances. On the other hand, many pupils, particularly the above-average in ability, would score much higher if not held back.

Need to know the students.—High-school teachers who have several different groups a day do not have the opportunities that elementary-school teachers typically have for knowing their students individually—their backgrounds, interests, and abilities. Unfortunately, this pressure frequently leads to an overemphasis on subject matter and on common standards. At present, however, more help is being provided through increased guidance services, more complete testing and diagnosis, special teachers, and more cumulative and anecdotal records. Courses in reading for high-school teachers, although not required for certification, are offered in many university departments of education.

Goethe has been credited with the comment: "The dear people do not know how long it takes to learn to read. I have been at it all my life and I cannot yet say I have reached the

goal." Certainly, reading is not a simple task which, when learned, may be applied equally well to any type of material. Each grade or level puts new demands on the reader.

New skills needed in high school.—Elementary-school teachers cannot possibly teach adequately all the reading skills needed at the high-school level or even bring all pupils up to an accepted level in those skills and attitudes which are taught. A high-school boy referred to the reading clinic because of failing marks in a course in commercial law had not discovered that each new term in the textbook was followed immediately by a definition enclosed in parentheses. When this was pointed out to him, he admitted that he always skipped material in parentheses because it "doesn't change the meaning of the sentence."

New skills taught beyond Grade III or IV may never be adequately mastered, but the type of reading demanded of the high-school student suggests the need for at least the following abilities:

1. Reading flexibly according to the type of material and the purposes of reading
2. Outlining or organizing materials
3. Using several methods of attacking new words
4. Developing new reading tastes
5. Reading critically
6. Recognizing the author's mood or purpose
7. Skimming

Among more mature readers, developing flexible rates is important. One of the writer's adult reading classes included a successful lawyer who was not able to enjoy light reading because he read everything in the way he read his law materials, observ-

ing every letter and comma and reading for total comprehension. His one slow, ponderous reading rate caused him to read everything as if his reputation and fee depended upon complete mastery.

Organization of the reading program in high school.—Traditionally, the problems of high-school reading have been met by incidental training given by various staff members or by the introduction of clinics or remedial classes. The danger in the "incidental" program in which every teacher is expected to be a teacher of reading is that no one feels primarily responsible for reading. Remedial classes and clinics, although helpful, usually are able to take care of only a small per cent of those requiring help. A co-ordinated and concentrated program, in which all staff members participate and in which developmental reading is the core, is essential if any really appreciable school-wide gain in reading is to develop. All too frequently the remedial classes defeat their own purposes either because they become the dumping ground for the intellectually or socially crippled or because instruction is not continued long enough for the gains to be consolidated.

In a co-ordinated program the English department is usually made responsible for teaching the basic skills and providing systematic training in reading and other language arts. A noteworthy trend in English classes is the increasing emphasis upon all communication arts, such as writing, speaking, listening, and reading. In addition to these developmental

classes, the English teachers are usually given the remedial-reading sections. This is a natural and common-sense procedure, even though some English teachers may feel that it is an encroachment upon grammar or literature.

Responsibility of content teachers.—Developmental and remedial classes in reading do not eliminate the need for direct and prompt help by the content-subject teachers in the unique problems arising from different types of material. No teacher other than the chemistry teacher is likely to be so well prepared to give—or so interested in giving—instruction in the reading skills involved in chemistry, such as technical vocabulary, mathematical background and concepts, symbols, formulas, graphs, tables, and the ability to follow directions, to read for detail, to draw inferences, and to make generalizations. Any teacher may help to develop better reading skill in his subject and to adapt to differences in reading achievement by various procedures: (1) making suggestions for reading in the particular subject and for preparing specific assignments, (2) simplifying concepts and controlling vocabulary, (3) grouping, (4) individualizing assignments and projects, (5) sponsoring group discussions and committee work, (6) supervising study, and (7) collecting a variety of reading materials covering a wide range of reading difficulty.

Not only is reading a school-wide problem; it is also a school-wide responsibility.

A CLUB AND NEWS COLUMN AS INFLUENCES IN GUIDANCE

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THE GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT of Pocomoke High School, Pocomoke City, Maryland, last year was gratified with the success of a Guidance Club, which was established during the early months of the 1951-52 academic year by the guidance counselor, and with the benefits accruing from a guidance column which appeared periodically in local newspapers.

THE GUIDANCE CLUB

Early in the year the school counselor realized that the number of demands made upon him would not ordinarily permit him the time and the energy to utilize all the guidance practices and ideas that would be desirable. It seemed advisable, therefore, to establish as an aspect of the guidance and educational program a Guidance Club. This club was both an interesting and significant experiment and a novel co-curricular activity aiming to secure the support of the students and to promote the all-important adjustment service of the school.

The organization at the outset comprised the guidance counselor and five Senior, four Junior, and two Sophomore students who, on the basis of their interest in learning about the

problems and needs of the school, their special training, and their willingness and ability to assume responsibility, were chosen, or volunteered, to become charter members of the Guidance Club. Other students who evidenced leadership qualities and readiness and had contributions to make were constantly added to the roster.

As chairman or sponsor of the club, "on-call" at all times, the guidance counselor assumed leadership and responsibility for the direct, on-the-scene assistance to the Guidance Club members. He parceled out tailor-made advice, plans, and definite functions. He was responsible for the orientation and continued in-service training and development of "the staff." He planned for the effective use of guidance concepts, procedures, and materials; of publicity devices; of up-to-the-minute surveys and follow-up studies. Although no formal meetings were held, there were many private conferences, and discussions were held weekly for the mutual exchange of opinions and views of members.

In an atmosphere that has always been democratic and conducive to self-realization and self-discovery, the Guidance Club, over a period of time, set up the following aims and objec-

tives: (1) wholehearted assistance to fellow-students, faculty members, and the school counselor in the adjustment of the school to the needs of the pupils and the community; (2) provision for continued educational succor to pupils, graduates, and school drop-outs; and (3) maintenance and promotion, through guidance procedures, of the physical, mental, academic, cultural, individual, social, and economic worth and dignity of students.

SPECIAL SERVICES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE GUIDANCE CLUB

What have been the special services and functions of the Guidance Club? How have these been promoted by the student guidance personnel? The club staff members have procured and disseminated relevant data to assist in guidance; have arranged for prominent outside speakers, representing many vocations and professions, to address the students; have assisted in the organization of a film program through the preview and review of 16mm motion pictures; have participated in follow-up surveys; have assisted in the Pocomoke High School pre-admission advisement and orientation program; and have helped in the administration and scoring of standardized tests.

Procurement and dissemination of information.—The procurement and dissemination of pertinent information to fellow-students has been an important function of the Guidance Club. Certain members of the organization were reporters for the weekly school newspaper, the *P.H.S. Quill*.

They guided public and student opinion and interpreted the school philosophy and the guidance program for the student body and interested citizens of the region through publication of such suitable data as current developments in occupations, requirements for scholarships and college entrance, details about lectures to be given to the high-school students, and a series of "Profiles" of outstanding members of the Senior class. Office-practice students of our commercial course, members of the Guidance Club, and others, during the regular typewriting periods, study periods, and even during their lunch hours, helped to integrate the guidance program with the over-all school policies and procedures by mimeographing suitable data; by cataloguing appropriate free and inexpensive occupational and educational material (which is continually being secured from various state departments of education, industry, the federal government, colleges and universities, and all the military branches); and by typing and mailing letters and follow-up questionnaires. Such aids as motion pictures, slides, posters, charts, and other graphic materials on social, educational, and vocational developments and needs were cared for almost exclusively by the young men of the club, who also operated and maintained the motion-picture and slide projectors.

Outside speakers.—In arranging for the selection and appearance of outside speakers, the students and the school counselor jointly considered such matters as the interests, needs,

and abilities of the particular audience of pupils, the apportionment of available time into a regular two-hour period, and the welcome that was to be accorded the guests. There was always the added requirement that our resource visitors, successful men and women, represent educational, vocational, and military areas, such as junior colleges, schools of nursing, universities, the life insurance business, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Western Union Telegraph Company, and the United States Marine Corps, Air Force, Women's Army Corps, Coast Guard, and Navy. It was also customary to follow up each visitor's survey or report of the requirements, possibilities, and limitations in a particular career or educational field with a question-and-answer period held on the following day.

Each spokesman, also, following a visit to the high school, was rated by the club members and by the Senior classes in English and in "Problems of Democracy" on his use of well-organized, stimulating, illustrated material; on such personal characteristics as enthusiasm, voice, and English usage; and on his effectiveness as shown by pupil response, interest, participation, and possible acquisition of skills.

Audio-visual aids.—It is the accepted contention of outstanding educators that the proper use of the sound motion picture as a vehicle of communication, instruction, and entertainment in the school will make teaching vivid and emotionally significant. In line with this philosophy, the writer enlisted the aid of three colleagues, sev-

eral club members, and students of his English and social-studies courses to organize a badly needed film program to supplement class discussions and other media of instruction, namely, use of resource people and field trips. The corps of student aides, after procuring such authoritative sources as the Office of Education publication, *A Directory of 2002 16mm Film Libraries*,¹ and copies of the *Audio-Visual Guide*,² helped to compile a list of films with guidance and educational implications emphasizing subjects as timely as tomorrow's newspaper, such as the social and economic evils of alcohol, marriage as a partnership, writing effectively, acquisition of a vocabulary, the individual inventory, and adventures in various occupations and professions. We requested, for preview and preparation for guidance and class work, forty-five films that met the committee's most rigid requirements of scholarship, research, technical excellence in subject treatment, and in synchronization of sound and motion. Three teachers and the corps of Guidance Club members compiled a list of desirable films which they recommended for future loan, purchase, or rental-purchase by the Worcester County Board of Education.

Follow-up surveys.—One of the basic services of the Pocumoke High School guidance program is the acquisition of factual data about students who leave

¹ Seerley Reid and Anita Carpenter, *A Directory of 2002 16mm Film Libraries*. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1951, No. 11.

² Newark, New Jersey: Educational and Recreational Guides.

school. Follow-up studies emphasizing four methods for the procurement of vital data—questionnaire with appropriate introduction, personal interview, a combination of questionnaire and interview, and telephone interview—are made at intervals of one, three, five, and seven years after the boys and girls leave school. During the period from October, 1951, to February, 1952, the guidance department made a follow-up survey to evaluate the effectiveness of the high-school curriculum and guidance program in terms of the adjustment, progress, and degree of success or failure which the local high-school graduates of the 1946-51 period had achieved in educational institutions beyond high school. The Maryland State Department of Education, in its continuous program of research, annually requires from each high school a report of the number of the previous June graduates pursuing certain occupations or attending schools and colleges.

By discharging much of the necessary clinical work in these two follow-up studies, students currently in school, especially the highly co-operative Guidance Club Seniors in the office-practice and social-studies classes, materially assisted the guidance counselor in obtaining relevant information about the former students, graduates, and drop-outs and their reactions toward the school organization, curriculum, and the guidance program. An organized club group addressed, mailed, acknowledged, tallied, and filed the mimeographed questionnaires; forwarded necessary follow-up

letters, and, on innumerable occasions, supplied the guidance counselor with facts about former students.

Pre-admission advisement and orientation.—Students in every school should have access to a complete pre-admission advisement, articulation, and orientation program. Inasmuch as the indications are that the greatest failure and loss from withdrawal occur during the opening year of the high-school program, the guidance department of any secondary school, large or small, ought to make essential arrangements to look after the welfare and morale of incoming pupils.

In the spring, when pupils were terminating the work of Grade VIII, a Guidance-Club team, comprising the school counselor and three or four students, visited the "sending" school to discuss with the eighth-graders the proper selection of high-school courses, schedules, eligibility for co-curricular and extra-curriculum activities, the ideals and traditions of the high school, the purpose and the nature of the marking system, discipline, correct study habits, and respect for school equipment. The incoming Freshmen were given opportunity to see representative secondary-school classes in action and the chance to interview students and instructors in their future school.

Measurement of student growth and development.—A thoroughly organized, systematic program of group and individual measurement of the growth and development of its students characterizes one of the many services of the Pocomoke High School guidance

department. The vocational preferences of ninth-grade students are measured each year by the Kuder Preference Record, and the General Aptitude Test Battery is annually administered to Pocomoke High School Seniors by the United States Employment Service. The California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity and the California Achievement Tests are regularly given to Freshmen and Juniors. Suitable individualized tests are administered to Sophomores when desirable. These tests supply the guidance counselor, instructors, administrators, and the student personnel with an insight into, and an appraisal of, the learner's occupational interests and educational worth.

Guidance Club aides are active participants both in the actual administration of the standardized tests, which have a fascination for them, and in the construction of diagnostic and self-interpreting profiles of the scores. Club functionaries, who have become familiar with the various tests through their own experience in taking them and through in-service education from the school counselor, set up good physical conditions, for instance, proper ventilation and adequate lighting, in the classrooms where the group testing is to be held. Also, the assistants have ready such required materials as test booklets, pencils, erasers, scratch paper, and a stop watch. In the actual construction of the diagnostic and self-interpreting profiles and in the interpretation and evaluation of test results to the guidance counselor, club members have become very profi-

cient. They have manifested ability to use tests constructively in helping their classmates take advantage of educational and occupational opportunities.

Occupational placement and adjustment.—One of the distinctive contributions rendered by a guidance department is the occupational placement and adjustment of pupils, graduates, and drop-outs with varying aptitudes, interests, and needs. The guidance counselor, as the 1951-52 academic year was drawing to a close, was awaiting administrative approval to launch an occupational community survey of available part-time, late-afternoon, Saturday, and vacation positions for school enrollees and of full-time employment for graduates and drop-outs. Circular letters requesting employment data and assistance from industrial and business concerns, stores, banks, civil-service organizations, and the United States Employment Service will be typed, mailed, filed, and tallied by the Guidance Club members.

Evaluation.—By way of a brief appraisal of the Guidance Club, the guidance counselor is able to testify that it has been beneficial in its effect upon its members as well as upon the guidance program. Young men and women who were members of the organization acquired a sense of security in their relations with their fellow-students, and they materially aided the school and the guidance department in the realization of the aims and objectives of the club itself. Enthusiastic support and interest have been

demonstrated by students, the faculty, and many local citizens for this integrating force in the high school. Because the club is independent of any established coterie and restricts membership to students with interest and spirit, there is every indication that it will continue growing in scope and service.

A NEWS COLUMN AS A MEDIUM OF PUBLIC RELATIONS

Students, parents, teachers, and community leaders, in conversations with the guidance counselor during the opening weeks of the first semester, expressed concern about the establishment of a truly effective guidance program in the high school. Aware that the support, approval, and even the success of the guidance activity would be dependent upon good public relations in the school and in the community, the guidance counselor decided to publicize the goals and the significance of the guidance program through the publication of newspaper articles dealing with the guidance of student personnel. A "Guidance Department Briefs" column appeared regularly in the weekly *Worcester Democrat* and *Democratic Messenger* newspapers. Through this column, approximately 250 pupils of the local high school and 3,100 members of the predominately agricultural community were kept informed about the aims and objectives of the Pocumoke High School guidance and counseling program.

During the ten months of the school year, the guidance consultant con-

tributed thirty timely articles to this column. Some commentaries on the guidance program emphasized factual information of a statistical nature. Others gave a general, objective view of the guidance services and activities prevalent in the local secondary school. Typical topics of discussion were the individual inventory system; recent trends in educational and psychological measurement practices; the supervised correspondence program available to local high-school students; detailed descriptions of the philosophy, techniques, and procedures of our guidance department; the social and economic factors that affect young men and women; the availability of students for work; and a thorough consideration of the distinctive roles (despite many areas of overlapping) performed by classroom teachers and guidance counselors in the attainment of such objectives as the intellectual, social, and emotional growth of students.

The guidance counselor, through his "Guidance Department Briefs" column, has received encouragement from his colleagues, students, publishers, and local residents. Since the inception of the column, sincere inquiry and constructive criticism have tended to increase the scope and effectiveness of the guidance program. Too, the column furnished such stimulating insight into the program of the Pocumoke High School that a genuine interest in the all-important ancillary service of the school—guidance of the student personnel—has been fostered.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

PAUL B. JACOBSON

University of Oregon

ROBERT R. WIEGMAN

University of Portland, Portland, Oregon



THE number of articles published in the area of secondary-school organization and administration during the year covered by this bibliography precludes listing all those of merit.

The articles that are included are, in the opinion of the compilers, representative of the material published during the twelve-month period from July, 1950, through June, 1951.

ORGANIZATION

GENERAL

620. SHIPP, FREDERIC T. "4-4-4-3: New Plan for School Organization," *School Executive*, LXXI (September, 1951), 62.

Describes a plan for school organization which, the author contends, has a sounder psychological, social, and educational basis than other patterns existing in today's schools.

ondary Education, XXVII (February, 1952), 112-15.

Traces the development of the junior high school and identifies some of the problems confronting such schools today.

623. GRUHN, WILLIAM T. "The Purposes of the Junior High School—after Forty Years," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 127-32.

Discusses how and why junior high schools have expanded and asserts that the purpose of such schools is the same today as it has been for the last forty years.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

621. BEALS, LESTER. "The Junior High School—Past and Present," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 15-24.

Points out present trends in the development of the junior high school.

624. MILLER, L. PAUL. "What Improvements Can Be Made in Organization, Administration, and Supervision in the Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 148-54.

622. FRASIER, GEORGE WILLARD. "The Junior High School as an Educational Problem," *California Journal of Sec-*

Identifies problems which must be resolved to assure a better education for youth of junior high school age.

JUNIOR COLLEGE

625. BURNS, NORMAN. "Encouraging News about the Junior-College Movement," *School Review*, LX (January, 1952), 10-12.

Shows how some states have made progress in the organization of junior colleges and cites, as an example, the Oregon law permitting the establishment of such institutions in that state.

626. MCGRATH, EARL JAMES. "Community Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, XXII (February, 1952), 305-6.

Discusses the important part junior colleges have to play in communities concerned with their public responsibilities.

627. PUNKE, HAROLD H. "Junior-College Admissions and Non-curricular Provisions for Students," *School Review*, LX (January, 1952), 39-45.

Examines the factors related to admissions to junior colleges and discusses provisions such as summer schools, night classes, and loans.

628. YOUNG, RAYMOND J. "School District Reorganization and the Public Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XXII (October, 1951), 72-75.

Contends that school-district reorganization is necessary before public junior colleges are established.

629. YOUNG, RAYMOND J. "Junior-College Supervision and Control," *School Review*, LIX (November, 1951), 485-88.

Identifies some of the problems created by the growth of junior colleges.

ARTICULATION

630. HOLLEY, J. ANDREW. "Next Steps in Studies of School and College Relations," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVI (April, 1952), 320-31.

Summarizes the principal points brought out in a conference on school and college relations. Discusses some of the more promising procedures and practices for improving such relations.

631. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "Toward Better Relationships between Junior Colleges and High Schools," *School Review*, LX (February, 1952), 77-83.

Considers some of the problems and possible solutions in high school-junior college relations.

RURAL EDUCATION

632. DAWSON, HOWARD A. "Almost Half the Children," *NEA Journal*, XL (September, 1951), 407.

Identifies twelve problems in rural education which, the author believes, should receive immediate attention.

633. *Education in Rural Communities*. Fifty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1952. Pp. xii+360.

Considers the major characteristics and services of rural schools; presents plans of organization, pilot programs, and co-operative projects; emphasizes the need for trained leadership in the rural schools.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

634. FERRELL, CHARLES. "School Solutions: Three-Way Vocational Training," *Journal of Education*, CXXXIV (October, 1951), 202.

Reports on the vocational-training program carried on in the high school of Contra Costa County, California.

635. HARRISON, ELTON C. "Life Adjustment Program and Vocational Education," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XL (December, 1951), 394-97.

Discusses the need and nature of vocational-education programs and the im-

portance of such offerings in making good citizens.

636. KOMOW, MAXIMILLIAN. "The Relationship of Industrial-Arts Education to Vocational Industrial Education," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIV (April, 1952), 40-45.

Gives the aims and points out the differences and similarities of industrial education and vocational education.

637. LESTER, SEELIG. "Tools of the Trade," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXIII (October, 1951), 28-31.

Presents reasons for vocational education and discusses the nature of the school curriculum and the pupil enrolment in a vocational-education program.

ADULT EDUCATION

638. BROWN, GILES T. "Never Too Old To Learn: A Gerontological Experiment in General Education," *School and Society*, LXXIV (November 3, 1951), 279-81.

Shows how a successful class of older adults was organized and conducted.

639. HERRINGTON, EVELYN M. "Our Teachers and Adult Education," *Journal of Home Economics*, XLIII (November, 1951), 701-3.

Stresses the need for adult education and emphasizes that all educators must work together so that all adults who want the opportunity to pursue their studies may do so.

640. KEMPFFER, HOMER. "How Much Adult Education Do 444 School Programs Provide?" *School and Society*, LXXV (January 12, 1952), 26-27.

Shows, by means of a clock-hour index, how much educational time is provided for each adult in the community.

641. KNOWLES, MALCOLM S. "Research in Group Dynamics Used in Founding

New Adult Education Association," *Nation's Schools*, XLVIII (July, 1951), 60.

Tells of the founding of the Adult Education Association of the United States of America.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

642. BROWN, FOSTER C. "Local Citizens Committee: Roots of the Vine," *School Executive*, LXXI (January, 1952), 51-53.

Discusses methods of organizing citizens' committees so that they will function as constructive agencies to improve the schools' program.

643. DOBBS, F. T. "In What Ways Can the School Develop Good School-Community Relations?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 277-82.

Points out that the school belongs to the community and that every member should know about his school.

644. ESSEX, MARTIN, and SPAYDE, PAUL E. "The School and Its Community: Getting the Public into the Act," *School Executive*, LXXI (October, 1951), 19-22.

Suggests ways to make the public conscious of the purposes and problems of the school.

645. HAMLIN, H. M. "Organizing School-initiated Citizens' Committees," *Educational Leadership*, IX (February, 1952), 305-9.

Presents general principles that should be followed in organizing school-initiated citizens' committees.

646. MARLAND, S. P., JR. "The Man Who Came to a Workshop," *School Executive*, LXXI (January, 1952), 54.

Tells how one layman feels about his responsibility to his schools and shows how educators can secure assistance from the public.

647. OLSEN, EDWARD G. "Promoting Community Study Programs in Washington State," *School Executive*, LXXI (September, 1951), 58-60.

Reports how Washington's Office of Public Education promotes the use of com-

munity resources and suggests ways of improving school and community relations.

648. TIETJEN, CHARLES H. "Your Citizens Can Help You!" *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (September, 1951), 27-28, 90.

Contends that many citizens, working in committees for a better educational program, can be the strongest link in a chain of successful school-community practices.

ADMINISTRATION

GENERAL

649. DAVIES, DANIEL R. "Expanding Responsibilities of Educational Administration," *Teachers College Record*, LIII (October, 1951), 9-15.

Identifies and discusses some of the factors contributing to the complexity of the administrator's job.

650. FARLEY, BELMONT. "Who Heads Our Schools?" *National Parent-Teacher* XLVI (April, 1952), 4-6.

Compares the school superintendent of 1951 with the superintendent of 1921 and discusses some of the changes in American life which are reflected in new demands on the administrator.

651. FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A. "Experts in Public Service," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (July, 1951), 44-45.

Discusses the procedures that should be followed by the superintendent in preparing and presenting proposals to the board of education.

652. JESSUP, MAURICE W. "How Can Faculty Meetings Become Effective Professional Experiences?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 225-30.

Outlines a plan to achieve better staff relationships and reports the findings of a short questionnaire on faculty meetings.

653. MILLER, VAN, and SPALDING, WILLARD B. *The Public Administration of American Schools*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1952. Pp. xvi+606.

Identifies the problems of school administrators, approaches to solutions of these problems, and some emerging hypotheses.

654. PITTENGER, BENJAMIN FLOYD. *Local Public School Administration*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. xvi+512.

Contends that the efficient administrator must be a specialist in the enterprise that is being administered. Therefore, the overall pattern of schools and school systems is presented to assist school administrators to acquire a better understanding of their profession.

655. SMITH, MARY NEEL. "Action Research To Improve Teacher Planning Meetings," *School Review*, LX (March, 1952), 142-50.

Describes the procedure employed to make teacher planning meetings more effective.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

656. CAMPBELL, CLYDE M. "The Administrator Treads a Perilous Path between School Board and Professional Staff," *Nation's Schools*, XLIX (March, 1952), 49-50.

Contends that lines of responsibility should be sharply defined: that the staff should formulate policies and the board of education should either accept or reject them.

657. GUY, R. C. "How May Democratic Administration Be Achieved?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 63-66.

Discusses the values of advisory committees, teacher conferences, and custodial staff meetings in developing democratic school administration.

658. MILLER, B. R. "Democracy within Reasonable Limits," *Clearing House*, XXVI (December, 1951), 200-202.

Claims that responsibility and authority go together and that they cannot, and should not, be separated.

659. STORY, M. L. "Semantics and Democratic School Administration," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVIII (March, 1952), 155-59.

States that democracy in school administration is an elusive, subjective judgment but that it deserves the ultimate in clarity.

660. ULRICH, WILLIAM E. "A Plan for Democratic Administration of a High School," *School Activities*, XXIII (September, 1951), 5-9.

Outlines and discusses a plan for council organization which may be adapted to any sized school which functions on a home-room basis.

THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

661. GAUMNITZ, WALTER H. "Overcoming Administrative Problems in Small High Schools," *Education at Mid-Century*, pp. 238-47. Thirty-eighth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LII, No. 1. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1951.

Discusses two major types of administrative problems in the small high school: those which are external in nature and those internal in character.

662. HUMMEL, ERRETT. "Little Town Can Do It Better," *Nation's Schools*, XLVIII (November, 1951), 42-43.

Points out ways in which small-town schools can have as effective programs as do larger schools.

663. ROBINSON, CLIFF. "How Can We Develop Good Administration of the Small High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 295-300.

Discusses six possibilities for improving administration: realistic training program; careful placement; giving consideration to the role of wives; long-range plans; better salaries; and improved relations with board.

664. SILVESTER, ARTHUR P. "How Can We Develop Good Administration of the Small High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 289-94.

Explains how an active student council and a six-period schedule has assisted the administrator of a small school.

PUPIL PERSONNEL

665. COHLER, MILTON J. "The Law, the Teacher, and the Child," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (May, 1952), 31-32.

Points out that even when civil law cannot punish, the school has the right to administer reasonable punishment.

666. COLEMAN, WILLIAM. "Basic Steps in Developing a Guidance Program," *Clearing House*, XXVI (April, 1952), 474-79.

- Offers suggestions which can be followed by administration when setting up a guidance program.
667. DRIVER, HELEN IRENE. "Small-Group Discussion as an Aid in Counseling," *School Review*, LIX (December, 1951), 525-30.
- Describes a project used to show the importance of interpersonal relationships and shows how small-group discussions can provide personality growth for the normal as well as re-integration for the maladjusted.
668. EMERY, DONALD. "Staff Formulates Objectives for Guidance Services," *School Review*, LIX (September, 1951), 347-49.
- Describes a project of a high-school guidance staff which includes a basic philosophy, a statement of objectives, and specific activities that would implement the philosophy and objectives.
669. GRAY, ROLAND F., and BRETSCH, HOWARD S. "Formal Guidance Programs Deserve Study," *School Review*, LX (April, 1952), 235-36.
- Points out that some schools appear to have been eager to set up formal programs and, in doing so, have fallen short of their goals.
670. JONES, LEWIS W., and MACLAURIN, B. F. "Machines in the Cotton Fields: Children in School," *School and Society*, LXXIV (October 6, 1951), 217-19.
- Shows the influence on school attendance and enrolment in the cotton-growing South by the introduction of machinery.
671. MYERS, WARD L. "Discipline: Light Touch or Heavy Hand?" *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XL (September, 1951), 273-75.
- Lists factors in discipline and gives some disciplinary "don'ts."
672. SANTANICA, G. G. "What Homeroom Teachers Should Know," *Occupations*, XXX (February, 1952), 351-55.
- Lists forty-six concepts in the area of curricular and vocational guidance that should be understood by home-room teachers.
673. SHANNON, J. R. "Teaching Is a Man's Job," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIII (September, 1951), 39-40.
- Cites examples of occasions when corporal punishment has been necessary and contends that such measures are sometimes the teacher's best alternative.
674. SHANNON, J. R. "Two Sides of an Argument," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (October, 1951), 344-45.
- Presents a letter written by a father justifying his daughter's absences and the principal's reply.
675. STEEVES, FRANK L. "A Common-Sense Compromise on Discipline," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 288-90.
- Indicates that classroom management rather than pupil control is important to good discipline.

EVALUATION, RECORDS, AND REPORTS

676. BOONE, WILLIAM R. "Needed: Magician To Interpret Secondary School Transcripts of Grades," *Nation's Schools*, XLVIII (August, 1951), 30.
- Discusses some of the problems involved in deciphering and evaluating transcripts of transfer students.
677. LINDECAMP, CHARLES P. "How Should the Secondary School Evaluate and Record Student Progress?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 135-42.
- Traces the evolution of marking systems and reports of the findings of a workshop group who studied the problem of marking.

FINANCING ACTIVITIES

678. ETHNES, C. W. "Central Treasury for All Activities," *Clearing House*, XXVI (September, 1951), 30-34.

Explains the reasons why a central treasury for all activities is advisable and describes in detail the organization and procedures of the central treasury.

679. HALLEY, ROBERT R. "Criteria of a Good Student-Body Budget," *Clearing House*, XXVI (September, 1951), 28-29.

Presents six recommendations for avoiding budget headaches.

680. TRYTTEN, JOHN M., and HESS, WALTER E. "Extracurricular Activity Funds," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 204-29.

Answers twelve questions that are commonly asked concerning the regulation of the finances of pupil activities.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

681. BYERS, CARL C. "Public Relations and You!" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), 43-45.

Suggests that public relations begin in the classroom and that the teacher and community must work as a team.

682. DELANEY, JOHN F. "Good Will in Education," *American School Board Journal*, CXXIV (January, 1952), 59-61.

Tells of the success the Chicago Public Schools Bureau of Public Relations has had and points out its importance to the schools.

683. LAFFERTY, H. M. "The Superintendent Sends His Regrets!" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVII (December, 1951), 459-68.

Discusses some of the reasons for the public's increasing interest in public education and the implications of that interest for administration.

684. POOLEY, ROBERT C. "Publicizing Our Aims," *English Journal*, XLI (March, 1952), 121-26.

Points out the need for educators to clear up some erroneous ideas that the public has concerning education.

685. THOMAS, R. MURRAY. "Tell Your School's Story in Colors for \$25," *Nation's Schools*, XLVIII (August, 1951), 60, 62.

Shows how color slides can be used in acquainting the community with the school.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION

686. NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS. "Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXVI (July, 1951), 131-44.

Outlines the guiding principles, policies, regulations, and criteria governing membership in the North Central Association.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HARL R. DOUGLASS, *Secondary Education for Life Adjustment of American Youth*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. xii+630. \$5.50.

This volume by one of the outstanding men in the field of secondary education is a significant contribution to the professional literature. It is written from a very modern point of view but does not attempt to forward any special theory other than the growth concept of education.

The book describes, explains, and evaluates the principal aspects of secondary education as it now exists in the United States. It explores the current changes in principles and practices of secondary education and points out the more important historical and comparative backgrounds of the topics discussed. Problems and weaknesses of American secondary education are pointed out, but emphasis is placed on constructive proposals based upon the latest experimental research and study.

The general sequence of the discussions is developed around four significant questions: (1) What is the present situation? (2) How did it arise? (3) What is wrong? (4) Where are we going and why?

The central theme of the work centers on the task of meeting the needs and growth problems of all high-school students and preparing them for living in a rapidly evolving society. Chapters iv and v are specifically devoted to the specialized and general problems of adolescence as they affect high-school pupils. These chapters, plus a chapter on pupil retention and withdrawal, form the basis for all the rest of the discussions. In the remaining chapters, the

pupil-centered trend is discussed as it affects the curriculum, each of the subject fields, co-curricular activities, guidance, teaching procedures, school organization, school-community relations, and staff problems.

The objectives of secondary education are stated as major areas of living which are structured in terms of the various types of adolescent growth. Douglass considers the most significant areas of life-activities to be: (1) citizenship, (2) earning a living, (3) enjoyable use of leisure, (4) home living, and (5) mental and physical health. If these goals are to be achieved in practice, the educational experiences should be planned in terms of subject matter, activities, and other appropriate stimuli so designed that the individual may function adequately in the principal areas of human living. Chapters ix through xiii are specifically concerned with these areas, but life-adjustment needs of youth are constantly emphasized throughout the book.

The author not only has utilized the latest research studies in the field of secondary education but has relied on the assistance of specialists in a number of fields of learning to suggest ways in which their respective areas may contribute to these important life-activities. The recommendations for the various areas of instruction are well considered and should provide for the "needs" concept of the curriculum as found in most high schools today.

The volume recognizes that core-type activities will have an increasingly important role in the high-school curriculum and that education for life adjustment will be characterized by increased freedom from

subject-matter boundaries and organization. Twelve pages of chapter viii are devoted to a detailed discussion of the general nature and problems of core, unified, and fused courses, but limited attention is given to the place of these newer-type courses in meeting the stated life-needs of youth. This does not detract from the value of the book but does indicate an area that needs additional research and study.

The final chapter on issues and trends is a challenge to the reader. In a concise but comprehensive discussion, Douglass examines the significant problems and issues facing secondary education. One cannot help but be impressed by the practical nature of the questions confronting the high schools today.

Following each chapter, except chapter vii, are selected and annotated bibliographies, of invaluable assistance in further study and research, and lists of selected questions, problems, and trends. The thought-provoking nature of these study aids will greatly assist both students and instructors in planning learning activities. These valuable references and aids, combined with the twenty-five chapters of excellent content, twenty-nine selected tables, and numerous illustrations, give the book an outstanding scope and depth.

The format of the volume is commendable. There are bold-face section headings, footnotes have been kept to a minimum, and the type is large and clear. In writing this book, Douglass has expressed himself with a simplicity and clarity which enhances the value of the basic concepts, facts, and principles upon which practice may be developed.

Secondary Education for Life Adjustment of American Youth is admirably adapted for use in college and university classes in general secondary education. It may also be valuable to both in-service teachers and administrators who wish to orient themselves

to recent principles and practices in secondary education.

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WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, JR., and RICHARD M. PERDEW, *Understanding Economics*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1951. Pp. viii+536. \$3.28.

Textbooks in economics can be quite dull indeed! Presentations are frequently pedantic and the content overly encyclopedic. *Understanding Economics* is less dull than many books in the field and, more often than not, is positively interesting. Here is an attempt to picture economic life for high-school pupils in human terms within shouting distance of their own experiences. It is a brave attempt—and frequently succeeds.

The publishers follow the usual, routine layout ("The organization of the book is a logical one" [p. v]) and the law of demand for high-school textbooks in economics. Twenty-five chapters are organized into five parts, with logic leading the way. Part I presents "A Bird's-Eye View of the Economic System"; Part II, "Consumption, the Main-spring of Economics"; Part III, "The Structure of the Economic System"; Part IV, "The Economy in Action"; and Part V, "Some Economic Problems."

The merits of this textbook are many, but it is when the authors break away, in brief dashes for freedom, from the compartmentalized, subject-centered approach that their work becomes most vital and close to the lives of the students whom they wish to reach. The first fourteen pages of chapter i, for example, covering "Human Flies in the Economic Web" (the story of the Baker family during the depression of the thirties) and "The Nature of Economic Activities and Problems" (connecting incidents in the Bakers' story with the economic concepts involved), constitute the highest type of

teaching through the medium of the printed page.

Again, in a comparison of our economic system with that of the American Indian, excellent use is made of sociological data. For example, the statement is made:

Do not think for a moment that we are somehow brighter or more intelligent than Indians. Indeed, careful scientific studies have not been able to discover any significant differences in mental or physical capacities of different races [p. 32].

The nine-point "Consumers Creed" (pp. 105-6) should be very helpful. Chapter xxiii, entitled "Labor Organizes for Self-protection," is outstanding indeed, and chapter xxv on the "Personal Economic Problems" of getting a good job and meeting civic responsibilities has real pertinence.

Exercises at the ends of the chapters make two significant contributions to the field. "Your Knowledge in Action" points up things students can do, and should be doing, about their learning. And special skill exercises, such as reading a statistical table, making a line graph, and conducting a class survey, point the way toward the know-how necessary to intelligent action.

The textbook misses fire in several instances where the captions do not live up to their implied promise. For example, on page 17 we find four rules supposedly stating "The Essence of the Scientific Method." Most textbooks in general science present this method with fewer words and greater clarity. Also, there is little evidence that the scientific method has been applied to the understanding of economics. Six pictorial examples of common superstitions are drawn on page 18, but none of them is "economic" in any sense of the word, nor is an attempt made to show how sadly superstitious we can be economically. The caption "Why Economics Is Important to You" is followed by generalities which basically fail to answer that "sixty-four dollar" question. And the Marshall plan gets very skimpy treatment, indeed, compared with its world significance.

Nevertheless, this is a very teachable textbook. It makes excellent use of graphs, charts, illustrations, and exercises. Teachers and students should find *Understanding Economics* a pleasing and profitable educational pursuit.

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CLARENCE D. SAMFORD and EUGENE COTTLE, *Social Studies in the Secondary School*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x+376. \$4.25.

ARTHUR C. BINING and DAVID H. BINING, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952 (third edition). Pp. x+350. \$4.25.

WILLIAM O. PENROSE, *Freedom Is Ourselves: Legal Rights and Duties of the Citizen as a Basis for Civic Education*. University of Delaware Monograph Series, No. 2. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware Press, 1952. Pp. xviii+256.

In 1952 McGraw-Hill Book Company offers those interested in social education two good books on the teaching of the social studies. *Social Studies in the Secondary School* is a new work written by a professor of education at Southern Illinois University and by a social-studies specialist at the University of Wyoming. *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* is the third edition of a book, first published in 1935 and revised in 1941, written by a high-school principal and by a history professor who was formerly editor of the magazine, the *Social Studies*.

Samford and Cottle's book presents a well-organized review of progressive thinking and practice in the field of social studies in American schools since 1940 and succeeds, in large measure, in its attempt to be "practi-

cal." The authors give numerous examples from actual teaching materials to illustrate their points and discuss most of the topics appropriate to a social-studies "methods" course. Some attention is given to the problems of the social studies in the junior college, although the authors' policy of scattering this material throughout the book lessens its impact. The work is relatively free from typographical errors and is well bound, but it has an inadequate index.

The most serious defect of *Social Studies in the Secondary School* seems to me to be its deliberate ignoring of practically all developments in American teaching of the social studies which antedate the later 1930's. Its bibliographies are excellent for the decade 1940-49 but omit some of the best books written in the field before 1940. The authors are probably correct in holding that some works have erred by offering "too much philosophy and history of procedures" (p. vii), but the proper remedy does not seem to be the omission of all systematic treatment of the ways in which our present curriculum and methods of instruction in the social studies have come to be what they are. Some teachers might well be curious to know more about the "traditional and bad forms" (p. 93) against which the authors are reacting. And the more critical teachers might like to have an adequate basis on which to compare the "traditional" with more recent revelations to determine for themselves both the novelty and the intrinsic merits of the latter.

The Binings have brought up to date their familiar *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* without noticeably increasing its size. Although most of the material is substantially identical with that in the second edition (1941), it is evident that the whole work has been looked at critically and that revisions and additions have been made where the authors thought them needed. Quite properly, in my opinion, the Binings have retained their chapter on, and other references to, the historical development of the social studies in the United States and

have made a few—perhaps too few—comparisons with relevant conditions abroad. Some dogmatists will be shocked by the authors' sensible remarks on the proper use of lectures at the secondary-school level, but many good teachers will applaud. Unfortunately, the Binings' reiterated warnings against "faddism" in education are still in order. The work is free from typographical errors, is well bound, and has a good index.

Thanks to these authors and, among others, to Quillen and Hanna, to Moffatt, and to Wesley and Henry Johnson, teachers of teachers of the social studies have a far wider and better choice of textbooks for "methods" courses than they had fifteen years ago. If, however, they use the new edition of Bining and Bining in courses treating the social-studies curriculum, they should associate with it the earlier (1941) *Organizing the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* by Bining, Mohr, and McFeely. Those instructors who use the new book by Samford and Cottle would find it worth while and enlightening to use also Johnson's classic *Teaching of History* (1940 edition).

The work by William O. Penrose, dean of the School of Education of the University of Delaware, is of a more special character than the other two books described here. It begins with a review of the several meanings attached to the word "citizenship" and suggests that "civic educators will do well to focus their attention on the political behavior definition" (p. 25). The body of the book consists of a detailed analysis of the rights and duties of American citizens and aliens in the United States. The work concludes with recommendations, in light of this analysis, for improving our current education for citizenship. Dean Penrose weighed and found wanting in various ways twelve of the leading junior and senior high school textbooks in American government. Curriculum makers in the field of education for citizenship will ignore this work at their peril, though they certainly need not adopt all its suggestions. As an author of one of the textbooks on gov-

ernment which Dean Penrose did not analyze, I should like to recommend that he write a textbook in this field which will apply his own ideas of what should be taught. Such a work would be a real contribution, and, in the process, the author would learn why so

many of the current textbooks on government are as they are.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

Better Learning through Current Materials (revised edition) edited by LUCIEN KINNEY and KATHARINE DRESDEN, pp. x+216, \$3.00; *Using Current Materials To Study Current Problems: A Resource Guide for Social Studies Teachers* by JEAN D. GRAMBS, pp. 32, \$1.00. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1952.

BINING, ARTHUR C., and BINING, DAVID H. *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952 (third edition). Pp. x+350. \$4.25.

BRIGGS, THOMAS H., and JUSTMAN, JOSEPH. *Improving Instruction through Supervision*. A Revision of *Improving Instruction*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. x+524. \$5.00.

BROWN, EDWIN JOHN. *Managing the Classroom: The Teacher's Part in School Administration*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. viii+424. \$4.00.

CHESSER, EUSTACE. *Cruelty to Children*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1952. Pp. 150. \$3.75.

FROELICH, CLIFFORD P., and DARLEY, JOHN G. *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. xviii+412. \$4.25.

GRAMBS, JEAN D., and IVERSON, WILLIAM J. *Modern Methods in Secondary Education*. New York 19: William Sloane Associates, 1952. Pp. xiv+562. \$4.75.

JERSILD, ARTHUR T. *In Search of Self: An Exploration of the Role of the School in Promoting Self-understanding*. A Publication of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. New York 27: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. xii+142. \$2.75.

KELLEY, EARL C., and RASEY, MARIE I. *Education and the Nature of Man*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1952. Pp. xii+210. \$3.00.

MACDONALD, JOHN. *Mind, School, and Civilization: A Contribution to the Philosophy of Education*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Pp. xii+132. \$3.00.

McHOSE, ELIZABETH. *Family Life Education in School and Community*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. 182. \$3.50.

MOFFATT, MAURICE P., and HOWELL, HAZEL W. *Elementary Social Studies Instruction: Functional Learning for Children in Our Schools*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1952. Pp. x+486. \$4.25.

Psychological Studies of Human Development. Edited by RAYMOND G. KUHLN and GEORGE G. THOMPSON. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Pp. xiv+534. \$3.50.

SHOSTROM, EVERETT L., and BRAMMER, LAWRENCE M. *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xvi+214. \$3.50.

SPAULDING, FRANK E. *One School Administrator's Philosophy: Its Development*. New York 16: Exposition Press, 1952. Pp. 352. \$5.00.

WASHBURN, CARLETON. *What Is Progressive Education? A Book for Parents and Others*. New York 36: John Day Co., 1952. Pp. 156. \$2.50.

WELLS, HARRINGTON. *Secondary Science Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+368. \$4.50.

WYNNE, JOHN P. *General Education in Theory and Practice*. New York 10: Bookman Associates, 1952. Pp. 252.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BOUMA, DONALD G. Carte partie occidentale de la Nouvelle France ou Canada comm'elle fut en XVIIe et XVIIIe centuries dans l'Amerique du Nord. Goshen, Indiana: D. G. Bouma (R.F.D. 5). \$1.00.

CILETTI, LUCIAN J. *Youth on Trial: A Collection of High School Essays and Selected Supplementary Material*. Washington, Pennsylvania: Better the World Press, 1951. Pp. xviii+254. \$3.75.

Democracy Series (revised). Edited by PRUDENCE CUTRIGHT and W. W. CHARTERS. Book VIII, *Working for Democracy* by LYMAN BRYSON and GEORGE KERRY SMITH. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. xvi+426.

FAIRCHILD, FRED ROGERS, in collaboration with THOMAS J. SHELLY. *Understanding Our Free Economy: An Introduction to Economics*. New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+590. \$3.96.

GRANT, CHARLOTTE L.; CADY, H. KEITH; and NEAL, NATHAN A. *High School Biology*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952 (second edition). Pp. xii+814. \$3.88.

HECKER, EUGENE A. "Political Parties in the United States from George Washington to Harry Truman, 1789-1949: A Summary." St. Louis 7: Commercial Color Press (420 East DeSoto Avenue), 1952. Pp. 12 [newspaper format]. \$0.25.

"Illinois Authors." Prepared for the Illinois Association of Teachers of English by HELEN BURKHART, LOUISE LANE, and J. N. HOOK. Urbana, Illinois: Illinois Association of Teachers of English, 1952. Illustrated map.

KAY, SYLVIA C. *Reading Critically: In the Fields of Literature and History*. New York 4: Twayne Publishers, Inc., 1952. Pp. 166. \$2.50.

MITCHELL, A. VIOLA. *Softball for Girls*. New York 16: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1952 (third edition). Pp. 96. \$1.50.

NEWSOME, VERNA L., and BORGH, ENOLA. *Sentence Craft: A Text with Exercises for the Freshman Course in Composition*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. xxii+330. \$3.50.

ORR, ETHEL M.; HOLSTON, EVELYN T.; and CENTER, STELLA S. Reading Today Series: *Discovering New Fields in Reading and Literature*, pp. xii+628, \$2.84; *Progress in Reading and Literature*, pp. xii+660, \$2.84; *Exploring Literature Old and New*, pp. xviii+654, \$2.84. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952 (revised).

SMITH, EMMA PETERS; MUZZEY, DAVID SAVILLE; and LLOYD, MINNIE. *World History: The Struggle for Civilization*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1952 (revised). Pp. xii+742+xxxii. \$4.20.

Tiegs-Adams Social Studies Series: *Your Country and the World—Resources, Business, Trade* by ROBERT M. GLENDINNING with ERNEST W. TIEGS and FAY ADAMS, pp. 512, \$3.72; *Your Life as a Citizen—Community, Nation, World* by HARRIET FULLEN SMITH with ERNEST W. TIEGS and FAY ADAMS, pp. 496, \$3.72. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1952.

TOWER, MERRILL E. *Basic Aeronautics*. Los Angeles, California: Aero Publishers, Inc., 1952. Pp. 252.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

BOLLES, BLAIR, and WILCOX, FRANCIS O. *The Armed Road to Peace: An Analysis of NATO*. Headline Series No. 92. New

- York 16: Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 1952. Pp. 62. \$0.35.
- The Christian Foundation Program in the Catholic Secondary School.* (The Proceedings of the Workshop on the Christian Foundation Program in the Catholic Secondary School, Conducted at the Catholic University of America from June 12 to June 22, 1951.) Edited by SISTER MARY JANET. Washington 17: Catholic University of America Press, 1952. Pp. vi+178. \$1.75.
- CONRAD, LAWRENCE H. *Educational Television Moves Forward.* A Report of a Full School Day of Ultra-high Frequency Classroom Television Programs in the Public Schools of Bloomfield and Montclair, N.J., on April 30, 1952. Montclair, New Jersey: Montclair State Teachers College Television in Education Project, 1952. Pp. 40. \$1.00.
- The Courts and Racial Integration in Education.* Proceedings of the National Conference Held at Howard University, Washington, D.C., April 16-18, 1952. Journal of Negro Education, Yearbook Number XXI. Washington 1: Published for the Bureau of Educational Research, Howard University, by the Howard University Press, 1952. Pp. 229-444. \$2.50.
- Curricular Offerings and Practices in California High Schools 1950-1951.* Prepared by the Staff in Secondary Education, Division of Instruction. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 4. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. vi+122.
- DEAN, VERA MICHELES, and BREBNER, J. BARTLET. *How To Make Friends for the U.S.* Headline Series, No. 93. New York 16: Foreign Policy Association, 1952. Pp. 64. \$0.35.
- Defense Mobilization—The Shield against Aggression.* Sixth Quarterly Report to the President by the Director of Defense Mobilization. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1952. Pp. iv+52. \$0.30.
- DODDY, HURLEY H. *Informal Groups and the Community.* A Research Study of the Institute of Adult Education. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Pp. vi+34. \$0.75.
- Education in a Period of National Preparedness.* A Report of the Sixteenth Educational Conference, New York City, November 1-2, 1951, Held under the Auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. Edited by ARTHUR E. TRAXLER. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. XVI. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 53. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1952. Pp. vi+144. \$1.50.
- "Educators Guide to Free Films." Compiled and edited by MARY FOLEY HORKHEIMER and JOHN W. DIFFOR. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service, 1952 (twelfth edition). Pp. xi+508 (processed). \$6.00.
- "Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms." Compiled and edited by MARY F. HORKHEIMER and JOHN W. DIFFOR. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service, 1952 (fourth edition). Pp. v+172 (processed). \$4.00.
- "The First Three Years of Teaching: Promoting the Growth and Measuring the Effectiveness of the Beginning Teacher." Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1952. Pp. ii+32.
- Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials.* Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. Pp. viii+194. \$1.00.
- GARBER, LEE O. *The Yearbook of School Law 1952.* (Based upon decisions of the higher state and federal courts in cases involving school law, as reported during the past year.) Philadelphia: Published by the Author, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, 1952. Pp. iv+106. \$2.25.

- GRANT, EVA H. *Parents and Teachers as Partners*. Better Living Booklet for Parents and Teachers. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. Pp. 48. \$0.40.
- HOLTROP, WILLIAM F. *Vocational Education in the Netherlands*. University of California Publications in Education, Vol. II, No. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1951. Pp. viii+31-158. \$1.25.
- Institutions of Higher Education Accredited by the Regional Accrediting Agencies of the United States*. Chicago 37: National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1952. Pp. 24.
- MAUL, RAY C. *Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States*. Report of the 1952 National Teacher Supply and Demand Study. Washington 6: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1952. Pp. 40. \$1.00.
- PETRELLI, THOMAS. *Photo-Offset Production of School Publications*. Newark, New Jersey: American Graphic Inc., 1952. Pp. 28. \$1.00.
- The Preparation and Training of Pupil Personnel Workers*. A Report of the State Committee on Credentials for Pupil Personnel Services. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 5. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. x+86.
- A Procedure for Evaluating a Local Problem of Trade and Industrial Education*. Sponsored by the Joint Committee on Evaluation Procedures in Trade and Industrial Education of the National Association of State Supervisors of Trade and Industrial Education, National Association of Local Administrators of Vocational Education and Practical Arts, National Association of Industrial Teacher Trainers, in co-operation with the United States Office of Education. Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 1952. Pp. 64. \$1.50.
- Reading Instruction in the Total School Program*. Proceedings of the 33rd Annual Education Conference Held at the University of Delaware March 2, 3, 1951, Vol. II. Compiled by RUSSELL G. STAUFFER. Newark, Delaware: Reading Clinic, School of Education, University of Delaware (for sale by University Bookstore), 1951. Pp. x+50. \$1.00.
- Sargent Guide to Private Junior Colleges and Specialized Schools and Colleges*. Boston 8: Porter Sargent, 1952. Pp. 250. \$1.10.
- SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES. *The Iowa Tests of Educational Development: Test 10, Understanding of Contemporary Affairs, Form 1952*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 1952.
- The Social Framework of Education*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XXII, No. 1. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1952. Pp. 60. \$1.50.
- SPIERS, EDWARD F. *The Central Catholic High School: A Survey of Their History and Status in the United States*. Washington 17: Catholic University of America Press, 1951. Pp. xvi+216. \$2.50.
- Studies in Education, 1951*. Thesis Abstract Series, No. 3. Bloomington, Indiana: School of Education, Indiana University, 1952. Pp. 196. \$1.00.
- Suggested Activities for Mentally Retarded Children*. Prepared under the direction of the Bureau of Special Education. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 2. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1952. Pp. vi+106.
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